

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

MAY, 1934

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Mountain Sunshine

By Charles C. Curran

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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Social Development Through the Movies

HENRY JAMES FORMAN

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“THE man who writes a book,” recently stated the producing head of one of the largest motion picture companies on this continent, “may have dreams of reaching 100,000 people; but if he reaches 50,000 or even 25,000, he is outstandingly successful. *The average motion picture reaches between fifty and seventy million people.*”

Think for a moment what this means: fifty to seventy million people. The greatest play in the world probably never reached even a fraction of such staggering figures. By comparison with that, even the plays of Shakespeare and Molière sink to the rank of private theatricals. Seventy million for the average movie and many more millions for the outstanding one. Let us bear these figures in mind.

During the War, motion pictures were used for propaganda because of the deep impression they could create in the minds of masses of people. They cannot only *impress* the mind; they can affect and mold it to an extent that during the War was only hoped for and guessed at, but was unknown because not scientifically attacked.

It is now known—pretty thoroughly known—because an associated group of sci-

entists in various parts of the country received a grant of money from the Payne Fund to study this and kindred subjects scientifically. It took those psychologists, sociologists, and educators between four and five years to make the studies which have been brought together and summarized in the recently published book, *Our Movie-Made Children*.

I shall not aim to reproduce a book in a brief paper, nor would it be any use since that book, in turn, is based upon some nine volumes of scientific facts and data. The only thing one can do is to give the high lights among the discoveries made as to the movies and their effects upon our children and what we, the citizens of America, can do to mitigate some of their worst evils and get a better and more socially desirable product.

To begin with, we are all concerned—everyone of us. If we do not go to the movies ourselves, our children or the children we teach go. Seventy-seven million people a week see the movies in the United States, and that is a conservative estimate. The motion picture companies themselves have estimated a weekly audience in America as high as 115,000,000, and a world audience at 250,000,000 a week. Not

* Published by Macmillan.

only we in America, but the entire world is involved in the results of the merits or defects of the motion picture. And since we spoke a moment ago of the propaganda quality of motion pictures, it is obvious that we are all as deeply concerned about that as we might be about education, about the economic situation or about world peace. But how, we may ask, do we know that the pictures actually have the effects of propaganda; that is, that they leave fairly permanent impressions upon the minds of those who see them?

In this way: Psychologists in their research devised careful tests to see how a group of young people (upper grade and high school students) felt, let us say, toward the Chinese. They found, for instance, that there was in a certain group of several hundred a distinct anti-Chinese feeling. Then, without any particular warning or preparation they distributed tickets to a picture called "Son of the Gods," in which the hero is a young Chinaman of excellent character and of good bringing up. After that picture, as a matter of routine, these young people had another test as to their state of mind with regard to the Chinese. The mental attitude dropped sharply in the anti-Chinese direction and rose just as sharply in the pro-Chinese direction. In other words, these young people had their minds definitely turned from one attitude to another, and from anti-Chinese they became virtually pro-Chinese.

As another instance, "The Birth of a Nation" is a violently anti-Negro picture which had been recently remade with sound. In Illinois the experimenters found a town in which there are no Negroes. Many of the children of the town, the Superintendent of Schools informed the investigators, had never seen a Negro. Naturally, when the test was administered these young people indicated that to them a Negro was like any other human being with the same rights and privileges. The opportunity of seeing "The Birth of a Nation" was then given to them as might be any other entertainment. The subsequent test showed a sharp decline of their natural humanitarian

feeling and an equally sharp rise in the direction of anti-Negro prejudice.

Experiments showed that after a month, after three months, six months and nine months, and even nineteen months, this mental attitude still remained with the young people who had seen these pictures! Again we add that every picture leaves fairly lasting impressions on the mind whether we know it or not.

That is what the pictures can do. The question to us then is what do the majority of pictures contain in their plots and stories recognizing that the contents will remain so indelibly in the minds of all the young people who see them.

It was found that about eighty per cent of all pictures deal with the three major themes of crime, sex, and love.

In 1930, for instance, in 500 feature pictures, 137 dealt with crime and 44 with mystery and war, making nearly 40 per cent of the total number of pictures loaded with scenes of crime and violence. Imagine the deposit in the minds of the beholders! Why need we be surprised that crime of all sorts and crimes of violence are increasing in the United States? In 115 pictures taken at random as they passed through the theatre, 54 murders were committed, 59 cases of felonious assault, 17 hold-ups, 21 kidnappings, numerous other crimes, with a total of 71 deaths by violence. Altogether, 406 crimes were committed and 43 more attempted, a total of 449 in 115 pictures!

What can we expect of our youth if we submit them to these scarlet streams of crime annually, to this very blood-tub of homicides and murders? Even if they were angels to begin with, as doubtless they are, what should we expect them to become in view of this ceaseless propaganda of evil and criminality? But we are a supine people and we accept blindly what is in the tin-can and we pay for it.

In these 115 pictures, a large percentage of characters came under the headings of "occupation unknown" or "illegal occupation" such as gangster, bootlegger, smuggler, thief, bandit, blackmailer, prostitute. That is the company to which, largely, we

expose the youth of our land—people whom we should not care to know or live amongst, people who are a menace to the community and a problem to the police. Aside from their characters, their language is vulgar and their specialty consists of "wise-cracks" and double meanings. Their standard of morality is that of the barnyard when it is not that of the jungle. Frequently it is both.

Again, let me ask, what can we expect of our children in view of their exposure to this world?

We console ourselves with the thought that everything they see, the poor innocents, in the pictures, will glide from their minds as water from a duck's back; that many things they will not notice at all because their minds simply will not take them in. Unfortunately, that assumption is absolutely wrong. The opposite is true. It was found that the youngest children, of eight and nine, remember 60 per cent of everything that you remember from a picture. The average of what they carry away from the textbook is only about 30 per cent after, say, a month. The average of what they carry away from pictures is over 70 per cent the day after; and, astonishingly, at the end of say six weeks or three months it even rises to 100 per cent, and even to 110 per cent.

What this means is that what they get from pictures germinates in their minds and even increases with time, because children's minds are not over-filled with experience and, owing to day-dreaming, there is a process of expansion in the case of these vivid scenes and sounds.

There are many physical effects upon the sleep of children, upon brain and nerve centers, notably from pictures of horror and fright and pictures of the erotic sort, on which I have no space now to dwell. Suffice it to say that a neurologist of great repute and standing, Dr. Frederick Peterson, has compared some of these effects to the same sort of shell-shock that soldiers received during the War.

Children are, we know, universally imitative. Imitation is a major part of their education in this world. In virtue of the

visual patterns so constantly presented to them at the rate of a movie a week and in many cases of two, three and four movies a week, they must mentally imitate much of what they see on the screen.

As one sixteen-year-old puts it: "A young couple sees the art of necking portrayed on the screen for a month, is it any wonder that they soon develop talent?"

A young burglar, in starting preparation for his career, puts it frankly thus: "The ideas I got from movies about easy money were from watching pictures where the hero never worked and seemed always to have lots of money to spend. All the women would be after him. I thought it would be great to lead that kind of a life."

These ideas are not confined to burglars. Even in a "good" neighborhood, such as you and I live in, 20 per cent of the boys confessed that motion pictures stirred them towards ideas of making a lot of easy money. Fifty-five per cent of behavior-problem boys indicated that pictures dealing with gangsters and gun play stirred them toward emulation. Thirty-one different and separate techniques of crime were given by boys as having been learned from the movies and subsequently practised in their lives.

Half of an entire institution for delinquent girls declared that the movies imbued them with the desire to live a gay, fast life; 25 per cent of the inmates of that institution declared the movies directly responsible for their presence within its walls. In other words, not only are the movies an insidious form of propaganda in the matter of objectionable, anti-social patterns, ways, and attitudes, but the path to delinquency is literally dotted with the young addicts to the movies. Do not, however, let us get the idea that all movies are bad. Pictures of the type of "The Covered Wagon," "Ben Hur," "Arrowsmith," "Cavalcade," and "Little Women" are excellent in themselves, and very fine and highly desirable in their effects. Many speak of being moved to acts of heroism and fine emotions after such pictures.

(continued on page 430)

Social Adjustment and the Preschool Child

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RESEARCH institutions have made various approaches to the study of the social development of children. It would obviously be impossible to attempt a review of these studies here.¹ The studies that have been made represent different types of methodology. Some have been experiments with various devices for observing and recording the social behavior of children; some studies have attempted analysis of the successive stages in social development; and other investigations have been concerned with *types* of social behavior and social situations found among individual children. A number of investigators have been interested in searching for the *factors* which make for social contact and group formation and also for good or poor social adjustment in individual children.

We should all like to discover, if possible, the elements in the make-up of the child himself, in his environment, or in his experience and training, which help him or hinder him in adjusting happily to his fellows. It is quite generally recognized today that the ability to get on satisfactorily with one's fellows is an essential for mental health. The development of adequate social relationships is indispensable for groups as well as for individuals. Lack of understanding and coöperation among the peoples of the world today has made us painfully aware of the necessity for learning more about the origins of social behavior. Since social interaction between individuals forms the basis for the functioning of families, communities, nations, and world-wide relationships of international scope, it is imperative that we investigate the possibilities of greater social control through the education of individuals.

¹ Such reviews of research studies concerned with the social behavior of children may be found in the 1933 edition of the *Handbook of Child Psychology* and in the volume, *Experimental Social Psychology*, by G. M. and L. B. Murphy.

It seems probable that ultimate control of social behavior will have to be based upon knowledge of which factors make for good social behavior and which factors contribute to social maladjustment. Since it is generally believed today that the behavior patterns of an individual are established in the early years of life, at the Institute for Juvenile Research we undertook to investigate these possible factors in a number of cases of children of pre-school age. This study differed from most investigations of the social behavior of children in that most others have been experimental or observational studies carried on under more or less controlled situations, while this study was based on an analysis of case records from the Pre-school Department of the Institute. These were records of nursery school children in the various schools with which the Institute had a coöperative program, or children who had been brought to one of the pre-school clinics of the Institute for study and guidance.

In spite of the weaknesses that confront one in a research project based on case record data, there are important advantages in that method when studying such a problem as that of social adjustment. The ultimate objective is to know how the individual child adjusts to life situations, rather than how he reacts to some specified, controlled social situation over a very limited period of time. A definite report of how a child behaves under direct observation for a two-hour period in a nursery school situation, for example, can at best be only a possible prediction of how he might be expected to behave in a somewhat similar, natural life situation. If, however, one can obtain dependable and reliable accounts of a child's *characteristic* behavior in such a variety of social situations as to represent the daily life of the child, such a study has

certain values of both a theoretical and a practical nature which an experimental project under limited and controlled conditions does not have.

Three groups of case records were selected for analysis. The "problem" group was made up of one hundred cases of children who were socially *unadjusted*. A child was considered socially unadjusted when, in the opinion of more than one adult in charge of him (parents, teachers, Infant Welfare workers, and members of the staff of the Institute), difficulties in entering into satisfactory relationships with other children were considered *characteristic* of the child over a period of several weeks, months, or years. A child who merely felt ill at ease during the first week or two of a new school experience, for example, but then adjusted satisfactorily to other children, was not included in the "problem" group.

The second group consisted of fifty case records of children who were definitely considered *well adjusted* to other children. A second control group of one hundred cases, representing an *unselected* group, was composed of case records taken at random from the records of the Pre-school Department remaining after the first two groups had been chosen.

These three groups were compared with each other in an effort to discover factors which make for social adjustment or maladjustment in the early life of the child. Nineteen items were selected for analysis in these two hundred and fifty cases. They included sex, age, general physical condition, and intelligence of the child. In regard to the family situation, the number of children, the child's place in the family, his relationships to his brothers and sisters, the ages of the parents, the amount of education the parents had had, and their national origins were considered.

The family's social and economic status was represented by such factors as the occupation of the father, the family's financial dependence or independence, and the type of living quarters which they had. Other factors studied were the marital re-

lationships of the parents, the relationship of the father to the child and his attitudes toward the child, the agreement of the parents in regard to child training, the amount of previous opportunity the child had had for play with other children, the age at which he had entered a nursery school or kindergarten, and any personality or behavior problems presented by the child other than those of social behavior.

It seemed to us that any or all of these items listed above might conceivably be related to whether or not a young child gets on well socially with his playmates. The data abstracted from these two hundred and fifty records were analyzed and the three groups were compared in regard to each of these nineteen items, significant differences being determined by statistical methods. According to the results of this study, the only factors which appear to be significantly related to the social adjustment of a young child are the *intelligence of the child*, the *socio-economic status of the family* as represented by the *occupation of the father*, the *relationship of the father to the child and his attitudes toward the child*, and the *agreement of the parents in regard to child training*.

An interesting question that arises in connection with these results is whether children are socially well-adjusted *because they are intelligent*. The socially well-adjusted youngsters were, on the whole, considerably more intelligent according to the results of the Merrill-Palmer and Stanford-Binet tests than were the children who made a poor social adjustment to other children. It seems very possible from such studies as are available, however, that many children (especially young ones) achieve high scores on intelligence tests because they adjust well to the psychologist and the test situation, while others fail to achieve high test scores because they are socially unadjusted children who fail to adjust well to the test situation itself. This question furnishes an interesting problem for further study.

In conclusion, this study seems to indicate that the social adjustment of a young child to other children outside of his own

family does not appear to be so conspicuously related to any other single factor in the child's own make-up or environment that the one can be said to be the "cause" of the other. There appear to be a *group of factors* which are related to the child's social adjustment. To illustrate: The mere fact that a child is intelligent will probably not mean that his adjustment to other children will be good. If he possesses high intelligence, however, and *also* has a father who is in a profession, spends considerable time with him, and has constructive attitudes toward him, then the chances that the child will make good social adjustments are increased. If, furthermore, he is the middle child of his family and has parents whose marital relationship is a happy one, then his chances of good adjustment are still greater.

Such groupings of factors are sometimes called "constellations," and this concept

is coming to play an increasingly important rôle in psychological explanations of behavior and personality. Recent studies in this field tend more and more to support the viewpoint that any particular manifestation of behavior or personality is not the result of any single factor in the make-up, environment, or experience of an individual, but is rather the result of a "constellation" of such factors which, in combination with each other, tend to produce the observed result. From this study it appears that whether a young child is socially well-adjusted or presents problems of social adjustment will depend upon such a "constellation" consisting of various factors in his own make-up and in his life-situation. Outstanding among these are the intelligence of the child, the occupation of his father, the relationship of the father to the child, and the agreement of the parents in regard to the child's training.

Going Down Hill on a Bicycle

With lifted feet, hands still,
I am poised, and down the hill
Dart, with heedful mind;
The air goes by in a wind.

Swifter and yet more swift,
Till the heart with a mighty lift
Makes the lungs laugh, the throat cry:—
"O bird, see; see, bird, I fly."

"Is this, is this your joy?
O bird, then I, though a boy,
For a golden moment share
Your feathery life in air!"

Speed slackens now, I float
Awhile in my airy boat;
Till, when the wheels scarce crawl,
My feet to the treadles fall.

HENRY CHARLES BEECHING.

Education at Riverside Church School

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THREE are certain rather important differences between the Riverside Church School and the kind of institution the title is apt to suggest through the reader's experience with Sunday schools, Bible schools, and parochial schools. A brief description may, therefore, not be out of place.

The membership or enrollment of the school is about five hundred children and a somewhat larger number of adults. The available space makes it impossible to accept more children. From the nursery school up through senior high school, the school is graded, following rather closely the grading of the children in the schools they attend week days. The equipment, particularly in the lower grades, is comparable to that of the progressive schools in the neighborhood and of other schools with which the children are familiar. The teachers and supervisors have a background of training and experience similar to that of teachers and supervisors in such schools, with some special qualifications for religious education. Most of them are paid for their services and many of them are or have been teachers in progressive schools.

The activities of the Church School are concentrated in a Sunday morning session. All classes from the nursery school through the three classes for parents meet at nine-thirty. For the grades below the high school departments, there is a three-hour session. The older members of the school close their sessions at ten forty-five in order to share in the morning worship of the congregation as a whole. The Sunday program is supplemented by numerous committee meetings and an elaborate program of interest groups and social recreation. These activities are of particular importance in the junior high school and senior high school departments.

The curriculum cannot be described by reference to any system of lessons or text-

books. So far as the curriculum is determined in advance, it is in terms of very general areas of interest. Continuity and direction are secured by weekly written reports supplemented by individual, grade, and departmental conferences.

Any church is, at least in theory, a continuing institution so far as the lives of its members are concerned. They do not graduate and they are not confined to a particular generation. There is a remarkable similarity in the interests and problems of children, young people, and parents, although they find expression in somewhat different ways. The same home situation is often discovered in a child's class, in the parent's class, in a parents-teacher meeting, and in our personal counselling work. There is an opportunity to come at problems naturally from several angles.

The Riverside Church is a definitely liberal church. This means, among other things, that it has no dogmatic interpretation of God, Immortality, Right and Wrong to offer. It is deeply involved in the concerns of people in the realms of sex relationships, economic adjustments and social orientation; but it claims no final wisdom—certainly no fixed patterns—to be regarded as a panacea. Increasingly, parents who have children in our school are realizing that they need light on the basic problems of religion and ethics, of emotional adjustments and personal relationships, for themselves as well as for guidance in sharing with their children such light and experience as they have. Our program is one of continuous education—of children, older brothers and sisters, and friends, parents, and children again. We aim to coöperate in every way with their homes; but we are not trying to take over the functions of the home in providing the fundamentals of moral and religious education.

Most of the people among whom we minis-

ter think of themselves as Christians, although they represent a great variety of denominational backgrounds and many are not related to the church as members or contributors. They want their children exposed to some of the more distinctly Christian elements in our culture which are rather completely ignored by the so-called secular schools and with which they feel incompetent to deal adequately at home. This indicates the obvious field for our educational effort so far as content is concerned: the development of friendly interest in children of other social groups, races and nations, by taking part in various enterprises of the type that used to be referred to as "missions"; the directing of a gradual process of becoming aware of the church and acquainted with some of its characteristic ideas and practices; the provision for an introduction to its distinctive literature, and for a growing appreciation of Jesus and his teachings to furnish a basis and focus for religious insights, convictions, and loyalties.

No particular body of subject matter can be an adequate description of our field and function. Our fundamental interest is in the development of individuals in directions which to us, as Christians, seems to promise their richest personal growth and their most significant contribution to society. To this end our program, both for children and adults, includes instruction, study, worship, and recreation. Music, dramatics, arts, crafts, excursions and coöperative projects with other groups play important parts in it. Teachers give considerable time to individuals, and a psychologist or special counsellor is available for pupils, their parents, and members of the Church School staff.

The problems of how best to introduce words and symbols and to prepare for common but critical experiences of childhood are peculiarly important and difficult in the religious education of the younger children. Most of the features of traditional church school nurseries and kindergartens are conspicuous by their absence. Sometimes in our concern to avoid harmful blundering we fail

to be positive enough in realms specifically regarded as religious. We go very slowly and carefully, reluctant to introduce religion in terms of familiar ways of referring to God, of localizing Him and the spiritual world up "in heaven," of using God as an easy explanation of everything, and of conceptions of Jesus that we, as adults, cannot hold and do not regard as significant. The way Christmas is celebrated in many week-day schools reveals a failure to understand the elementary principles of a progressive type of religious education and precipitates many problems.

As children get into the primary grades, the activities become somewhat more formal and more recognizably "religious." We have learned that a very wisely handled process of initiation is necessary, and our first grades do not share in the general activities of the department until some time on in the year. There is no such definite change in characteristic activities again until children enter the junior high school department.

As one would expect, there is a certain amount of over-lapping in the activities of such a church school and those of progressive week-day schools. This is probably inevitable as long as we continue to think of one set of schools as having little or nothing to do with religion and of another set as concerned exclusively with religion. We do not regard religious education as a subject or group of subjects which can be isolated and taught by methods peculiar unto itself. We do not identify it so much with instruction about the Bible and theology as with those sensitivities, insights, attitudes, convictions, and habits we consider Christian. We continue to emphasize instruction in the Bible, theology, and ethics because understanding and appreciation in these realms are important to our fundamental purposes and also because they are so largely neglected by other institutions. For the same reasons we must emphasize problems of personal belief and conduct, social prejudices and practices. This involves a good deal of discussion at present of concrete so-

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Social Development at Home and School

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THE social development of the child is no more a home problem than a school one unless we are willing to argue that learning can be sorted out and pigeonholed and treated in separate units. Those aspects of learning, which have to do with acquainting the child with other people, their ways and intentions, their interests and power, and with making the child more self conscious as a social entity with similar demands and behaviors, are so closely interwoven in all of his activity whether he is at home, at school or "at large" that any attempt at discussing social development as a home responsibility would be fruitless. Even the fact that the child is actively engaged with people two-thirds of the time in which he is not in school does not locate the responsibility for social development in the home. The distinguishing aspects of social development wherever it occurs are not matters of quantity, kind or place, but perhaps entirely matters of variety, process and guidance. Given enough variety and the proper guidance a child's social development will progress, that is he will have behaviors that make him both socially acceptable and relatively happy. He will have learned how to have what he wants without making others too unhappy, he will have understandings which have made him tolerant, he will have understood his experiences which will give him wisdom, he will know how to make his contributions without domineering. Education for development of the individual has these goals and we can only accomplish it through close co-operation and teamwork between home and school.

THE HOME'S PART

In the fifty-four hours a week during which the home is responsible, what kind

of experiences does a child have that have to do with personal relationships? They include friendships, jealousies, covetousness, personal and property rights, sympathy, generosity, acquisitiveness, courtesy, humility, respect, tolerance, passion, prejudice. He will have learned to conduct himself according to the family convictions, or the social philosophy of the family. His expressed conflicts will have been settled according to his parents' beliefs as to whether it is best to learn to conform, or whether you assert your rights, whether you make gestures of generosity or whether you go out for acquisition, whether you let loose your passions or whether you turn the other cheek, whether you respect persons on a classification basis, or whether you respect them on merit. The shades of variation and type are legion. It is the parents' responsibility to have weighed home social prejudices and to have thought them through carefully enough so that when occasion precipitated arbitration, reasonable and consistent explanation and a method for behavior have been given the child. Whether or not this has been consciously done, the child will tend to express patterns of behavior resulting from experiences controlled by parent authority. The child will be socially happy according to his ability to have assimilated these learnings, to have orientated experiences into an inner setting that may comfortably become a part of his whole self. A few ordinary examples will serve to explain. A recent research has shown that a child has 2,400 social contacts with his mother before he acquires the skill to keep himself dry at two years of age. If he has had inconsistent training he has not mastered the skill at two. The inconsistency has been due to change in authority of one kind or another with result-

ing change in policy. The child has not known what to expect. He enters his third year with a hang over, an extra burden. Society expects more of him. He is somewhat of a nuisance. His play is constantly interrupted to change clothing. He reaps a harvest of scoldings and there begin to be unhappy times between himself and his mother. Toileting becomes an issue and a group of very real conflicts are set up, partly physical and to a great extent social. On the other hand the child who has been correctly trained has had success, he has personal joy from this bit of control, society echoes his mother's smiling approval.

The parents of Herbert are raising a gentleman. Herbert has learned to share. He has lots of toys, there's always an alternative for him if his friends want what he's got. Herbert's particular disposition has made it possible for Herbert to accept this Code, and to all appearances be quite happy. Herbert behaves this way. The polite society in which he moves looks with envy at the model child and approval knows no bounds. Joan goes for what she wants. Her parents recognize a competitive society. They want their child to have what and as much of this world's goods as every other person has, and they have started her out on this basis. Her well set techniques are superb for acquisition. She gets what she wants and is not too upset by another's crying.

The home has usually succeeded in training the child to behave in certain ways. Sometimes the teaching is based on intellectual reasoning. Sometimes it is weighted by a family's great desire to have the child socially acceptable; sometimes the behavior reflects family prejudices gained through unfortunate experiences and so on. Not only are false standards, emotional standards or impractical standards a consideration in guiding the social development of a child. A most serious problem is that caused when he is given unexplained conflicting standards. These he picks up wherever his interests and program take him. When he is "at large" all the forces in

the community may come into play, the movies, the parks, the churches, the neighbors, the butcher, the baker, the hot dog maker. Whatever weight these agencies may have the school and the home are given the authority for interpretation. The child will come to school expressing behaviors that have been acceptable in a set of known, experienced circumstances. As many different ways of meeting situations will be found as there are children and families represented.

THE SCHOOL'S PART

Most schools have a sort of a fundamental philosophy concerned with co-operative living. Most society is competitive. When the school superimposes its new authority there is bound to be confusion for the child and trouble begins within him. To be wholesome, conflict must not remain unassimilated, or misunderstood. A child governed by conflicting authority is bound to develop behavior cankers. Whatever the training, parents usually send children to school feeling that they may have a few hard knocks, but that is life and they'll get along, or that the school will make up for any lacks. The expectancy of the parents to share authority in whole or at least in part is quite obvious. It is as obvious that schools expect to train children, assert authority. And furthermore it is obvious that both authorities forget about the *shared aspects* most of the time. In some of the worst instances which still exceed average procedures, the teacher tells Johnnie something that she hopes he'll tell his parents, by way of showing them the inadequacy of their child's behavior; or the parents will tell Johnnie to "tell teacher so and so" by way of putting her in her place. Report cards are expected to do too much in informing homes. Increases in the need for visiting teachers who may be employed to do "case work in the preventive stages of unadjustment" are still too great in all schools to lead us to hope that this split, uncoordinated, dual authority is not responsible for frequently defeating the instructional aspects of the child's program as well

as causing problem behavior which in turn defeats the instructional aspects of the school program.

The social philosophy of the school, no matter how right, or fine, must necessarily be at variance with most home teachings at least some of the time. Community life in school demands different adjustments than home community life or life "at large." Association with numbers of peers is quite a different thing than association with adults, brothers or babies. Time works into the picture in an inescapable domineering sort of way, and then, there is the teacher.

Teachers haven't a very enviable social ranking. You can "pick them out on the train," a commercial house will eschew employing them, even dislikes an advisory conference with one, the family get on their "good behavior" when the teacher comes around. The teacher is a social bore, she's straightlaced, she's one sided, a queer sort of person, with lots of unsolicited barriers setting her off from the social whole, somebody trying to practice what she preaches, somebody living within the four walls of her schoolroom.

Growth cannot come through attempts to justify present ills. We know learning goes on in a whole manner all of the time. To understand people we have to know what their experiences have been, and how or whether they have assimilated them. "Once and for all" does not satisfy the need, for the child is constantly experiencing, constantly changing, constantly needing to be informed and guided for educative effects are always in process. Conflicts are good for him but he must comprehend them, understand them, know how to deal with them. Both sources of authority must know what is going on, and must at least be able to understand each other's prejudices and explain matters in such terms to children that tolerance can result where unity of procedure is impossible, and where maladjustment will not follow temporary misunderstandings. If it is necessary to teach Joan to be two kinds of persons, one kind at school and another the rest of the time, Joan can learn to be two persons. Being

two persons is far better than being one completely upset person. The upset parties had much better be the parents and the teacher, upset during the process of reasoning things out as a means of each making adjustments for a better guidance program for the child.

A RENOVATED SCHOOL PROGRAM

Perhaps all of this is trite to the reader, and yet if it is recognized, what evidences have we that something is being done about it. Do we face the fact that for happy wholesome child development the parents and teachers must know all about the child all of the time. Do we know that a change in attitude has to occur before there can be a frank free relationship between home and school. Do we realize that such co-operation cannot go on while the parents stay in the home and the teacher stays in the school. Do we know that the general airing of theories in parent-teacher group meetings is only a fraction of an inroad.

Perhaps one of the greatest barriers to progress in this closer relationship between school and home lies in the school program itself and in the idea that the professional services of a teacher are confined to school service between the hours of nine and four.

We need experiments in freeing teacher time for the requirements of social guidance of children. She needs to know the home environment and to spend enough time with parents to build up their understandings. She needs to have these home contacts frequently. Similarly the parents must know the school, the program, the type of instruction, the child's associates. It is not impossible to conceive ways in which home-school responsibilities and programs could supplement each other, using parent service at school, and freeing teacher time for home contacts. What better way to teach parents than by letting them share such aspects of the school job as can be turned over to them. What better way to mellow this unfortunate teacher than to let her get into the home and see her job from a new angle. Until the teacher has identified herself with

(continued on page 444)

Economic Conditions Affecting Education

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THOUSANDS of teachers have become only too keenly aware, in the last few years, of how economic conditions may affect education in general. Supplies are cut; schools are closed; gains made in the 1920's are being lost in the 1930's. Unhealthy children sit in the classroom. Dr. Snydenstricker of the United States Public Health Service is reported to have said that the depression has impaired the health of the majority of the American people.* War has been declared on "fads and frills." Opportunist politicians who once ingratiated themselves with the public by promising bigger and better schools, now placate heavily-burdened taxpayers by promising to reduce the school system to a shadow of its former self.

But after all, the excellence of education cannot be measured only by the number of schools open or the number of teachers employed, or even by the physical health of pupils. Gloomy as the situation has been and still is, there are some rays of comfort, especially to the social scientist.

There seem to be two levels on which we may view the field of social science teaching. Viewed from one level, social science consists in part of answers to such questions as: Where did Farmer Brown take the milk after milking the cows? How did it get into bottles? Did it arrive in the city by truck or train? What time does the milkman get up? Viewed from the other level, the questions about milk are seen in altered perspective. They are: Why did Farmer Brown join the milk strikers? Why does the commercial dairy discriminate against Farmer Brown in the latter's basic milk allotment? Is the A.A.A. adequately solving the problem of dealers' spread?

These same two levels persist in the study of municipal government. It is said

that New York school children are rather well versed in the structure of city government, but know almost nothing about Tammany—or, at least, what they know about Tammany was not discovered in the classroom. On one level we have Board of Aldermen, Board of Estimate, Mayor's term of four years, street-cleaning department; on the other level we see ballot-box stuffing, political bosses, intimidation and violence at elections. One level brings into focus the efficient, highly-trained traffic policeman; the other level reveals the general practice of the third-degree.

And so it goes. One level concerns itself with technology, structure, and praise; the other with conflict and disagreeable truths.

Both levels have their place. Structure and technology are important. But human conflicts in social and economic matters are of perhaps greater significance in social science. The social science program in the schools has concerned itself almost entirely with the structure-technology-achievement level. This is in striking contrast to the emphasis given to concepts on the second level by the social scientist.

Thus we have two kinds of social science. First, the social science which emphasizes the processes of production, progress in transportation and communication, geographic conditions underlying the location of cities; second, the social science which emphasizes such things as conflicts over wages and prices, the question of public or private control of industry, the contradictions resulting from an effort to secure private economic welfare as well as the welfare of society at large.

Why has the educator emphasized technology and avoided conflict? Let us try to list some of the reasons for the avoidance in the schools of such things as graft, strikes, sweatshops, dishonest banking practices.

* *New York Times*, November 25, 1933.

First, no doubt, is the young child's inability to comprehend the more difficult conflict concepts. A visit to the docks appeals to a child because he sees "boats as big as a house," cranes swinging automobiles around as casually as if they were toys. If one were to point out to him the conditions of longshore labor, the child would probably be bored, or would (if the subject were dramatized) come away with queer ideas of a villainous boss and a virtuous worker. In matters of conflict—which involves ethics—things are usually black or white to a child. But a study of conflict is much more complicated than that.

Second, public opinion has, on the whole, been opposed to the teaching of conflict concepts to young children. Imagine what would happen if, in studying communication in a small town, it were pointed out that Billy's father, the postmaster, got his job through political pull; or, while studying local government, that the reason for choosing the present site of the new high school was Mr. Jones' ability to unload an otherwise unsalable lot on the proper public authorities.

Third is the severe emotional disturbances that may be set in motion if a conflict lesson is really driven home. Even college students will sometimes be moved to emotional excesses when their study of unemployment (to take one example) has been sufficiently realistic.

Fourth is a whole complex of American traditions which has made us impatient of the social sciences. We are the richest nation on earth; and, while other industrial nations have patiently examined such reforms as unemployment insurance and better housing for the poor, we have (until the facts could no longer be denied) impetuously asserted that only the lazy are unemployed, that tenants in model houses would soon let them become filthy and verminous. Thus, in half-truths, social problems were dismissed.

Fifth is the difficulty of mastering social science. I do not quite mean that it takes more intelligence, or greater application to be a social scientist than to be a physicist or

chemist or engineer. I do mean, however, that it is harder to understand what causes depressions than to understand what causes a gasoline engine to go. On the latter subject, three carefully-studied pages will yield a clear, unequivocal picture of how explosions of gas push a piston; on the former subject, a careful study of three volumes may yield only confusion and contradiction.

Many other reasons could be cited for avoiding the discussion of social conflict in the school.

But things—at least some things—are changing. Public opinion is changing and perhaps the American tradition is being altered. Those bankers who were the national heroes of the 1920's are now not so heroic. In politics, many of the "ins" have been thrown out; and some of our largest cities have—perhaps only temporarily and partially—rid themselves of their political bosses. Unemployment is no longer regarded as the proper penalty of laziness or intemperate habits; it is recognized as a fate that may be reserved for the best of employees. Interest in economic problems is so keen that even young children ask about social legislation. The principal of a large progressive school in New York tells the story that when school opened after the Christmas holidays, a second grade teacher asked her children about their toys and gifts. One little boy said he didn't want to talk about his toys; he wanted to talk about old age pensions. This is symptomatic of what is going on outside the schools.

Public opinion seems to be changing; the American tradition is apparently being modified. It is becoming a sign of being well-bred to have opinions on economic and social subjects, and to air those opinions. In Mrs. Post's book of etiquette, it is suggested that a boring conversation is likely to follow the words, "The earliest coins struck in the Peloponnesus . . ." Today, who utters those words is likely to be pounced upon eagerly with such questions, "Oh! What do you think of the bullion standard?"

Are teachers learning more about conflict social science? Are children becoming bet-

ter able to understand conflict? Can the general emotional reactions stimulated by realistic social study be kept on an even keel? These are questions we still have to answer. Certainly those teachers who are unemployed are learning some of the bitter truths of social science. Apart from these, however, it is likely that teachers, being asked questions about the unemployment relief, and so on, find motivation to study a kind of social science that is not concerned with geography of the development of transportation. It was disappointing to learn, however, that only recently a teacher in a rich and renowned progressive school airily explained unemployment as being caused by machines. The problem is infinitely more complicated, of course.

Does an industrial depression enable a young child to learn more about conflict facts and disagreeable theories? No, but perhaps this period of gloom may be stimulating some educators to prepare conflict materials which the child does understand. It is my opinion that this is a field to be surveyed, and perhaps cultivated. Educational theory in social science seems to assume that the child progresses from great emphasis on technological social science to great emphasis on conflict (or dismal) social science, the latter emphasis being reserved for high school or college. It seems to me that both should go together. And if it now seems impossible to create such materials, let the writers of school books cudgel their brains a bit before giving up.

What about strong emotions engendered? This probably rests on public opinion, at

least in part. We do not really object to children's being moved—by martial music or fairy tales or *Little Women*. Many parents, indeed, allow their children to be needlessly frightened or unwholesomely stimulated by radio and movie. If public opinion veers around far enough, it may be that we shall be delighted to have children indignantly denounce rich income-tax evaders, or dishonest bankers. It is clear that we are dealing with delicate matters; but we deal with them in life; why not in the classroom?

A finally serious question revolves around the permanency of a different emphasis. Let us grant that public opinion now demands more conflict social science and that the teacher can and does introduce conflict concepts into the curriculum. And let us finally grant that this change of emphasis is to be construed as progress. Will the teacher be able to hold, five years from now, the gains made in the present and very immediate future? If we again have prosperity, will we consider all social problems solved, and will public attention flit from social reform to—let us say—speculation in stocks and land?

We cannot predict and we cannot generalize. We can only say that the depression has, thus far, stimulated interest in conflict social science. A need is felt at the moment. This need, arguing from one set of ethical premises, is wholesome. It should be met. And public opinion over wide areas of the United States, would now tolerate the teaching of conflict social science in many schools.

The Unexplorer

There was a road ran past our house
Too lovely to explore.
I asked my mother once—she said
That if you followed where it led
It brought you to a milk-man's door.
(That's why I have not traveled more.)

EDNA ST. VINCENT MILLAY'S Poems, Selected
for Young Children. (Harper and Brothers.)

Social Science in the Second Grade

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IN ORDER to plan a program that will meet the growing needs and interests of first and second grade children and afford them effective experiences in social living, it is necessary to set up a school environment which will release their manipulative, constructive, and creative energies and, at the same time, stimulate vital social activities. The environment and the program must be planned to broaden and deepen the social experience of the children through worthwhile activities within the school and through significant trips into the community. This interaction between the school and the community is fundamental to the learning process and vital to the social development of the children.

In the class room, there must be ample space and generous supplies of plastic materials which hold increasing possibilities at different levels of maturity. The daily program must be very flexible with long uninterrupted periods in which the children have opportunities to explore, initiate, experiment, and create. There must be a feeling of security in the school situation, and a sense of leisure, serenity, joy, intellectual challenge, and self-confidence on the part of the children.

The trips must be carefully chosen and well planned to stimulate, vitalize, and enrich the class-room activities, to extend the interests and experiences of the children, and to help them in understanding and interpreting some of the basic relationships underlying community living. Every teacher should explore the environment before school opens and become familiar with the educational possibilities for initiating, stimulating, and following up worthwhile interests and activities. There should be careful preparation before each trip, and it should be followed by opportunities for the children to pool their experiences in discussion,

to raise questions, and to organize and reorganize their information and ideas through language and other media.

The first and second grade programs at Lincoln School are centered in explorations and investigations of various phases of city life. Six- and seven-year-old children get the world through their senses and their muscles. They have not the techniques to investigate past times or far away places and they need to be well oriented in the immediate and the present in order to understand the more remote in time and space.

In the first grade, trips are taken to the neighborhood grocery store to buy fruits and vegetables to cook; across the East River and Hudson River ferries; to the top of tall buildings for purposes of orientation; and to such places as the local post office and fire department to investigate their functions and services to the community. Through block building, dramatic play and creative expression in language, fine and industrial arts, and rhythms the children relive the life of the home and neighborhood, become well oriented in their immediate school environment, and have well-established habits of work and play.

In the second grade, they are ready to go much further in their explorations than they have gone here-to-fore—to discover new relationships within the city and interrelationships between the city and the country; and to push their inquiries further and further back of the concrete facts, situations, and conditions which they observe in their own environment, to sources, origins, and causes.

Food is fundamental to the child's own needs and basic to his every day experiences in living. With a background of buying and cooking fruits and vegetables in the first grade, the second grade children are ready to take the next steps and investigate

more thoroughly this particular phase of city life. They may visit a fruit boat, wholesale market, cold storage plant, pasteurizing plant, truck or dairy farm to discover and discuss sources of New York's food supply, methods of marketing and transportation, and engage in related activities at school.

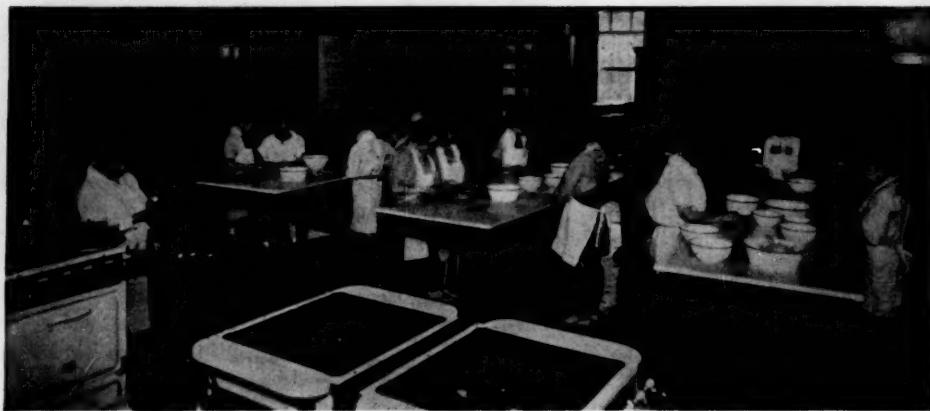
An interest in the source of the city's milk supply was launched one day while the children were eating their mid-morning lunches.

"This milk is made in a factory over on 125th Street," said Bob.

"It is not," replied Helen scornfully.

make something to eat for themselves or to share with others. They must read the recipes understandingly in order to measure accurately and cook successfully. Many concrete number experiences are involved. The children are responsible for having clean aprons and for coöperating in washing, rinsing, drying, and putting away the cooking utensils and dishes.

Besides the satisfaction resulting from the manipulation, experimentation, and fun of eating the product, food takes on a greater significance. The children learn something about the scientific aspects of food, the nutritive value, selection, and



Cooking is an activity which engages the wholehearted interest of children and promotes social coöperation and social growth. They must read the recipes understandingly in order to measure accurately and cook successfully. Many concrete number experiences are involved.

"Milk comes from a cow. Nearly every animal has milk for its babies, and a cow has too much, so we take it and drink it." This discussion gave the teacher suggestions for the next excursions.

Trips to the pasteurizing plant and a dairy farm were arranged, and followed by discussions, moving pictures, science experiments, stories, and the making of milk soups, butter, cottage cheese, junket and custard in the kitchen. Through these activities milk gained new meanings to these children.

Cooking is an activity which engages the wholehearted interest of the children and promotes social coöperation and social growth. The children are always ready to

cost, and get some appreciation of the human effort involved in meeting this important daily need in their lives.

The interest in milk which had already been cited was reflected in dramatic play, wood work, language, and painting. Spontaneous pantomimes developed during the rhythms period which culminated in a musical play, "The Adventure of Milk," for which the children painted the scenery, made their own costumes, constructed the properties, and made up songs. This play integrated all the avenues of self-expression, quickened the creative powers of the children, and developed a fine spirit of co-operation and team work.

A study of boats and New York Harbor

developed in connection with a visit to a fruit liner. A trip around Manhattan Island was arranged to answer questions which had been raised, to give the children a common background of experience, and to integrate and further their interest in the harbor. Some of the high points of the trip which stimulated discussion, inspired creative expression, and led to further study and investigation follow:

Dredges seen at work in the East River deepening the channels.

Lighthouses and buoys marking the river channels, wrecks, and rocks.

Picture maps of New York were consulted before and after the trip, interesting features were located, and the route taken by the group around the Island was traced. Jimmie and Paul drew a picture map on the floor with chalk to show Billy, who had been absent, how the group had sailed around Manhattan Island. When cleaning the room necessitated the removal of the map, plans were made for drawing a permanent



Plans were made for drawing a permanent map on large brown wrapping paper showing how the group had sailed around Manhattan Island. This coöperative map grew as the geographic experience and knowledge of the children increased.

Fireboats located in their various docks around the island.

Police boats (flying a little triangle of green inscribed "Police" in white letters) which guard the harbor.

A mail tug docking with its load of foreign mail taken from an ocean liner at Quarantine.

Garbage boats being towed to sea by tugs.

Ocean liners, belonging to the different steamship companies, identified by the distinctive markings of their smokestacks.

The various bridges around the island—their types and names.

permanent map on large brown wrapping paper. This coöperative and cumulative map grew as the geographic experiences and knowledge of the children increased. After the trip to the lighthouse base and the inspection and discussion of pilot maps, the lower bay was added, with the correct locations of Ambrose and Scotland light ships, the lighthouses of New York Harbor, and the main channels marked by buoys of proper color and type. At the end of the year the map contained a record of all trips taken by the group and it was used by the

children to trace and describe these trips during an exhibit for the parents.

Two weeks after the trip around Manhattan Island, the group visited the Lighthouse Service Station on Staten Island to extend their information about lighthouses, light ships, and buoys. The "Ambrose Lightship," which was in for repairs, was thoroughly inspected from the engine room to the light towers, with a member of its crew as guide who vividly described life on

he explained his daily duties and told about his difficulties in foggy weather when the machinery sometimes refuses to work and he has to ring the fog bell all night by beating with a hammer in the particular rhythm that distinguishes his station.

Bill, Jack, and Charles responded to these harbor experiences by constructing fleets of boats of all kinds and sizes. They worked with persistence, determination, and concentration, going into great detail and mak-



In the class room, there must be ample space and generous supplies of plastic materials which hold increasing possibilities at different levels of maturity. There must be a feeling of security in the school situation, and a sense of leisure, serenity, joy, intellectual challenge, and self-confidence on the part of the children.

board. The children examined the various buoys on the dock, and learned the differences between nun, can, spar, bell, and whistling buoys, and their various functions. This trip was followed by a motion picture, "Safety at Sea"¹ which showed lighthouses, lightships, and buoys in action, and vividly pictured a ship in distress during a storm and a thrilling rescue by the Coast Guard.

A visit to a lighthouse completed the first-hand investigations of the harbor and gave the children an appreciation and feeling for the work of the lighthouse keeper as

ing improvements on each successive boat. They formed themselves into a boat company and rented boats to the other children during the play period. (Nothing that the children do requires more intellectual effort or brings more emotional satisfaction than the construction of boats, trains, buildings, etc. and the dramatic play which follows. Play is one of the media through which the children organize their information, think through community activities, work out relationships, and thus experience and interpret their world.)

John and Joan expressed their interest in the harbor by painting boat pictures. They decided to give a "boat show" in the

¹ Secured at the American Museum of Natural History, New York City.

theater which Martha was constructing with wooden boxes. They became so absorbed in this plan, that one child after another joined their ranks until the entire group was working on this activity which culminated in "The Grand Boat Show" given at the exhibit for their parents. The pictures began with a boy paddling on a log, included historical boats, many kinds of present-day boats and various aids to navigation, and ended with the modern lines *Normandie*. "Talks" were given by the children when their individual pictures appeared. The Grand Boat Show was a means of organizing, vivifying, and summarizing the information and knowledge about boats and New York Harbor. The content which had developed through trips, discussions, pictures, experiments, stories, reading, and dramatic play, as well as the individual experiences of the children, functioned freely in the art and language expression. This activity brought evidences of growth in poise, self-control, social coöperation, and a finer sensitivity to the details of their environment.

The following questions proposed after the boat show by the children for further investigation and study indicate the range

and scope of their interests in the social, physical, and natural sciences.

- "How do they build lighthouses?"
- "How can things float on water?"
- "How do they get those poles down under the water where it's so deep when they build bridges?"
- "How can airplanes stay up in the air without falling down?"
- "How can trains go so fast and stop so quickly?"
- "How did they make the Holland Tunnel so that water wouldn't always be coming in?"
- "How does electricity make light?"
- "How does it go through wires?"
- "Why do things freeze, and how do they freeze?"
- "When fire burns, why does it make smoke?"
- "How does the moon get in those different shapes and what becomes of the pieces when it isn't all there?"
- "Where did the world come from?"
- "Why does it turn around?"
- "Why doesn't it fall and land somewhere?"
- "Why do plants grow and what gives the color?"
- "Why do cats' eyes shine out so when it's very dark?"
- "How did people first learn to speak?"

Dissonances

Oft in the midst of music rare
Comes a break in the fluent air;

Seeming dissonances creep
Into the chords once tender, deep.

But, as the deft musician plays
On to the end, the music strays

Back to harmonies that are meet
Making the whole a thing more sweet.

RICHARD BURTON, in *Collected Poems*.
(Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.)

Play—A Unique Discipline

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TO THE discerning observer, there is increasing evidence that play is something more than mere amusement for the naive. In a manner peculiar to itself play is a social discipline, partly because it provides a constructive release of potentialities and partly because it affords children a more varied and more intensive experience than do other forms of human activity. By shaping the child to the social pattern in its own field, play makes its unique contribution to social discipline.

That it may be understood just how this discipline takes place, it is necessary to define play. There have been a number of previous attempts at such definition. None of them is wholly satisfactory; and, since they are available in published form, it is not necessary to review them here.

Repeatedly, writers on the subject of play discuss the differences between work and play, though children are never confused regarding the distinction. What is the reason for this confusion on the part of the writers? It grows out of the fact that the work situation and the play situation, though having essential differences, have common elements as well. An experience begun as play may end as work, and *vice versa*; and enjoyment may increase with the change, whether it be from play to work or work to play. Enjoyment, consequently, is not the essential difference between work and play. The essential difference lies in this: that play is always an artificial situation and work is always a genuine one.

Because the whole field of play cannot be covered in a brief article, even superficially, the traditional group game (that is, the organized play which, like other folkways, has passed down from generation to generation) will be used from this point as synonymous with play to make this distinction clear.

A game, then, is an artificial situation set up imaginatively and defined by rules which together with the prescribed rôles, is accepted by the players. Thus, when the child plays a game, he psychologically picks himself up and transplants himself from the genuine situation to the artificial or imagined one. He accepts the total situation of the game, including his own rôle in it; and, as long as the game lasts, acts as consistently in the new situation as though it were genuine. He not only submits to the demands of the situation, but he coöperates in creating and upholding the situation.

The question now arises as to why, if the game is only play and he knows that it is only play, the child should take a game so seriously, submit to its rules and penalizations, put so much effort into it, and enjoy it so much. It seems to me that there are two chief causes for this: one, the nature of the situation; and the other, the child's attitude toward it.

Traditional games were not consciously created by adults for the amusement or instruction of children but are, rather, human nature socially patterned. Folk games are elemental—that is, they are elemental in the sense that they correspond to somatic development, bodily functioning, and cultural patterns; and, even though they are configured by the mores, they are at the same time free in their social organization from the conventional formality which characterizes so many genuine situations. In other words, folk games are social patterns with a stamp of universality. Thus the game has its roots both in human nature and in cultural experience.

Like good drama, the game eliminates irrelevancies and brings events into close sequence in such concentrated and simplified form as to condense in both time and space the essence of a complex and long-

drawn-out typical life experience. In this way, and because of the varied content of games, the child gets both more and different experiences from play than is otherwise possible in the process of every-day life. I believe that the human organism, sensing a problem, tends to solve it. Certainly, the child shows readiness to accept the challenge of the game-problem, whether it demands that an act of skill be performed, an opponent be overcome, or a communal project be accomplished. Willingness to enter into the artificial game situation through interest and insight into its problem and to accept the challenge for its solution constitutes the attitude of play. This voluntary acceptance of the challenge, growing out of the tendency of the human mind to solve a sensed problem, contributes largely to the discipline which play holds for the child, and incidentally obviates the necessity for the introduction of any such extraneous stimuli as merit points, emblems, and the like as a spur to effort.

Having accepted the challenge to solve the problem, the child likewise accepts all the subsequent requirements of fitting into the total situation: playing his part in relation to the others, shaping his conduct in accordance with the rules, submitting to the hardships of penalization, and so on. This constitutes a unique type of discipline for the child, one aspect of which forces him to progress not only in skills but in the transition from infantile to adult behavior, from self-gratification to self-determinism. Infancy is necessarily a period of self-gratification. The infant must be treated sympathetically, every need must be met, every pain eased. In fact, in a general way, to live the infant must "get what he wants when he wants it." And just as truly, every child, to live happily, must gradually come to act in accord with the rules which every group of which he is a part has evolved. Thus the game is a concentrated unit of experience in which the child, who actually participates, must inevitably make the transition from self-gratification to conformity to the rules which govern the group, rules which he ultimately helps to create and enforce

impartially, not only upon others but upon himself as well. It is thus that play contributes to the transition from self-gratification to self-determinism.

Such discipline derived from play is more far-reaching than mere conformity in a particular situation because it effects changes which are at least as permanent as those effected in genuine situations. For example, a group of nine and ten-year-old children were playing "Two Deep," a simplified form of "Three Deep." An anemic looking child stood staring into space as the runner, pursued by "It," stopped in front of her, making her the runner. She should then have dashed off at once to avoid being tagged by "It"; but instead of running, she allowed herself to be tagged, whereupon she became "It" and had to run continuously until she succeeded in tagging a runner, a severe penalty in view of her physical frailty. This occurred several times during the game, but after about twenty minutes the child began to watch for the runner and when the runner stopped in front of her the next time, she finally succeeded in getting away before being tagged.

It is altogether probable that in a genuine situation this child would have resisted the severe penalization which she accepted uncomplainingly in the artificial one. No doubt the close sequence of cause-and-effect relations in the game which made understandable to the child the justice of the penalty, influenced her submission to the penalization for her own failure to act effectively. No doubt, too, the impartial and impersonal enforcement of the rules apparent to the child awakened in her some sense of obligation to accept the result of this infraction, even when the penalty fell upon her repeatedly.

There are two aspects of the dynamic character of the child's play which should be especially noted in attempting to understand his experience. One is the fact that the game, being on the child's plane, not only mentally but emotionally, physiologically, and socially is a "going concern" for all participants, a source of stimulation and release to his whole nature. Hence, in the

game more is accomplished for the child by his self-determined discipline—self-determined because the game is created and sustained by all the players—than can possibly be accomplished by mere external conformity to predetermined or overweighted behavior patterns (such as sportsmanship, for example) even though the child is willingly submissive. The other aspect of this dynamic character of play is that it is unconventional; that is, in the game situation unconventional behavior which would be offensive in a genuine situation is entirely legitimate. Much of the child's nature, which urban life represses and inhibits, play releases and organizes.

As has been said, by projecting himself into the artificial game situation, the child gets safely and constructively not only a different type of experience but more experience than he can possibly get in the routine of every-day living. The *dramatis personæ* of the game are varied; indeed, they may comprise a wide array of animals, or even a "show-up" of thieves, robbers, and kidnappers which rivals that of the police records. These characters, however, are not so terrorizing when one stops to realize that the robbers only tag their victims, the thieves steal only sticks, and the witch kidnaps Monday while Sunday obligingly turns her back.

But playing children do not confine themselves to the underworld; they climb into the seats of royalty and descend to the humble rôle of the cheese in the farmer's dell. In one sense, all this is an escape from reality, but it is an escape quite different from passive day-dreaming. It is, rather, an experience fraught with active achievement wrought out in interaction with real flesh-and-blood children; for even though the game pattern may furnish a pictorial setting, the actors do not act in character but as themselves. That is, the rôle in the game is quite different from the rôle in the drama. In the game, the children merely take different parts. For example, in baseball the pitcher, catcher, and fielders are rôles. Or, again, in a more dramatic type of game, the fox, the chickens, and the

mother hen are rôles; but, as in baseball, the players do not "get into character" in the dramatic sense, even though they no doubt experience dramatic feeling. In the game, "Little Sally Waters," the words of the song run as follows:

Little Sally Waters sitting in a saucer,
Weeping and crying for a nice young man.
Rise, Sally, rise, and wipe off your eyes,
Turn to the East and turn to the West
And turn to the very one that you love best

Note that "Sally" does not even sit, but stands in the center of the circle of children, turns about with her eyes shut, and points her finger at another child, all in the most matter-of-fact way. After this dispassionate demonstration, "Sally" and the child at whom she has pointed exchange places, and the game is repeated. Such experiences offer innumerable opportunities for behavior problems to emerge and be dealt with by the children as children. If, for instance, Sally peeks and points at her best friend, she is taken to task for it by the others; and, if the law is enforced, she must choose again and let "divine providence" guide the pointing finger.

The substance of all this is that the dramatic situation of the game makes the whole action more graphic, stirs the imagination, and awakens dramatic feeling and, at the same time, permits flesh and blood children to act naturally within the situation.

If, then, the essence of play is the joyous voluntary entering into an artificial situation with its subsequent release and consequent organization of the elemental nature of the child into socially acceptable patterns, if sensing the problem produces sufficient communal effort for its solution, then both extraneous stimuli and over-weighted objectives are unnecessary, since the behavior they are devised to induce inevitably emerges in the process of playing the game. The social discipline unique to play, then, is inherent in the concentrated social unit—the game itself—for the nature of the content of the game determines both the child's attitude toward it and the peculiar discipline it holds for him.

Growth in Social Adjustment

MILDRED MILLER

Third Grade Teacher, Cleveland Heights Public Schools, Cleveland Heights, Ohio

OUR children are confronted daily with many situations that call for social graces and social adjustment, so it is the rôle of the school to furnish an environment in which children may grow socially through coöperative activities with people. Social growth in the children is expressed through their relationships with people in desirable attitudes, appreciations, skills, habits, and judgments.

Each child in the group was checked on a Social Chart from four to six times on the following specific objectives. Each objective was analyzed with the children so they understood what each one meant. They often noted their own growth on the chart.

Appreciating and respecting the views and achievements of people who have different customs, standards and tastes from ours. Acquiring skills, information, and attitudes that will aid in getting meaning and enjoyment from books, pictures, nature, museums, people and music.

Cultivating social courtesies.

Conforming to group-made rules.

Enjoying and selecting right type of fun and entertainment. (Training for leisure time was a guiding factor in the teacher's mind.)

Evaluating questions, statements and making decisions.

Harmonizing self-interests with group interests and working for best interests of the group.

Reporting events accurately and delivering messages correctly.

Sharing actively.

Thinking and acting independently.

Working with clear definite purpose in mind. Self control, poise, and personality.

The units of work in this particular 3A group of twenty-six children were:

1. Puppet Shows.
2. Furnishing food, clothing and playthings for a needy family.
3. Pioneer Days in Early Cleveland.

A glance at these units shows that the school set-up integrated the home, the school, and the community so all the children were reached through several avenues of expression.

Direct contact with people, with museums, with the Schoenbrunn Settlement and excursions in the community as well as with books, pictures, nature materials and early handicrafts furnished a truly social background for the units of work.

Every effort was made on the part of the teacher to arouse and awaken interest in the children, thus allowing feeling or emotion to surge through them and thereby attaching feeling to ideas, beliefs, actions and processes. What takes place in the child is the dominant factor in learning and it is the way he tries, the earnest effort he puts forth from within that really educates him. Many opportunities for sharing actively in enjoyable team work in class and work rooms, in gymnasiums and playgrounds were given the children in order that they might become habituated to pleasant team work and coöperation became second nature for them.

Clear, straight thinking was demanded from the children by helping them collect and classify facts that related to questions under discussion.

A wide variety of materials and types of activities such as the following provided many avenues for self-expression and co-operation:

Giving puppet shows to the group. The children received requests from the kindergarten through the elementary grades to come and give puppet shows. Each child had at least one chance to go to some room and give his show. Groups of five or six mothers were invited at a time until each had heard her own child and several others give a show. It was difficult to tell which enjoyed the shows more, the children or the mothers.

Writing letters.

Giving oral reports when a grade from Shaker Heights who had visited Schoenbrunn Settlement too, came to see what their pioneer friends in Noble School had learned.

Arranging articles of pioneer days loaned us from museums and homes.

Making designs for samplers, hooked rugs, and pewter trays.

Making samplers, hooked rugs, and pewter trays.

Making dye from poke berries, walnut hulls, onion skins, golden rod and sumac.

Sharing food, clothing, and playthings with a family of six.

Many mistakes, of course, were made in relating and interpreting ideas that were gathered from reading and from excursions. Other mistakes were found in spelling and language in both letter-writing and written reports. The mistakes made in reproducing the Schoenbrunn Settlement on a large poster opened up the need for perspective principles in drawing. Many mistakes were made in knitting, hooking, and cross-stitch. Of course, some children were more apt in learning these skills, and the children who were slower in learning freely sought the help of the good knitters, hookers, and cross-stitch workers. (Material with very large squares for cross-stitch were used so there was no strain on eyes or fine muscles.) The mistakes furnished a highly educative channel for learning and the teacher was ever ready to give definite guidance. Much help was given in interpreting facts read, in increasing vocabularies, in locating statements, in choosing major and minor points.

There follows a brief description of two of the three units of work:

PUPPET SHOWS

The reading materials used were mostly fairy stories with a few realistic tales and pioneer stories read in connection with the study of Pioneer Days. Most of the stories were read from library books outside school hours. Stages for the shows were either cardboard or wooden boxes with curtains and were made at home. Most of the puppets, stage properties, and scenery were

made at home or before school in the mornings. If children were having trouble with any part of their show, they usually asked for help in the art period. Often help and suggestions were made. In a few days the teacher might recognize that the help given had been utilized in scenery and puppets in the shows that were given.

In the beginning the puppets were of the simplest kind and children worked alone. As time went on children began working in groups and the puppets passed through many stages, each change being an improvement. Stick puppets, oak tag puppets on strings, clothes pin puppets, wire and yarn puppets, tiny dolls, dogs, bears and cats were dressed to be manipulated on strings and finally one group made puppets from cloth stuffed with cotton.

The various activities in the unit came very spontaneously from the children and furnished excellent opportunity for growth in the following specific objectives on the Social Chart: #2, #3, #4, #5, #7. Children reported when they had a show ready, checked off their date on the calendar, and waited for their turn.

One day the children were asked why they liked to give puppet shows and the following answers were given:

Sue. When we give a show we are doing something for other people. I like to entertain.

Lucile. I don't make as many mistakes when I talk for the puppets as when I read. I don't think the children enjoy hearing me read but I know they like my shows.

Dick. It is fun to make puppets and work with the boys. I like to read stories when I know I am going to give a show. I like people to tell me to give a show and how to make my show better.

Ellen. I like to hear the people clap when I give my shows. They always tell me something nice. I always thank them.

Tom. I like to work with the group. Each one decides what he can do and all go to work. I think our group gets the most help. Our friends tell us how to make our shows better.

The good points and the weak points of the show were always discussed after the

show was given. The children always welcomed the criticisms for they were always striving to improve their voices, puppets, scenery, and stage.

Every child gave from three to five shows except one girl, who had the highest I.Q. (157) in the group. Socially, Janet was a real problem. She was large, rather mature in manner with reading interests far above the group. She was self-conscious, often silly in her relations with children in the group, cried easily, was awkward in gym work and folk dancing, always worked alone, was very poor in hand work, and was friendly with only one child in the room. She had little creative ability in art but expressed ideas very well in written language. Janet had a fund of information gained through her reading but no interest in group work.

A conference was arranged with the mother. Apparently the mother was not aware of the child's lack of sociability. Mother said her little daughter was happy reading and practising her music lessons. When the mother was told of her daughter's unsocial attitude, she asked at once what could be done to help her child. Each point on the Social Chart was explained to the mother. The teacher's suggestion to invite children into the home to play with Janet was acted upon at once. Members of the group were invited for luncheon on Saturdays. On other occasions, one or two girls from the group were invited to attend a program for children at the Art Museum. Janet always extended the invitation. On one occasion the teacher attended the program and asked several mothers to take their children to the same program so a free discussion could take place on Monday morning at school. Janet had read the story of "Dick Whittington and His Cat" before she went to see the play which was given for children by The Junior League. Janet knew the story and enjoyed the play very much, so she was called upon to tell the story to the group. Some of the children wanted to give a puppet show and Janet was asked to work in the group. She made little contribution but it was an en-

tering wedge for her to work with a group.

One day a notice was sent through the building announcing a Dick Whittington Puppet Show given by Duncan-Mabley, Incorporated. The company gave a marionette to the school and the room that sold the most tickets would own the marionette. At the next discussion period the interest of the group centered on selling tickets and trying to capture the beautiful string marionette. Janet surprised us by asking if she could check out tickets to children. She stimulated all the children, told them how she had called on her neighbors and her mother's friends asking them to buy tickets. The 3A group won the marionette and Janet was greatly thrilled. Gradually Janet began to coöperate with members of the group. She is very happy now and often asks if she can't help someone.

The children enjoyed checking their growth on the Social Chart. The achievement on the part of the lower I.Q. children gave them courage and at the same time a new social rating. A decided growth in co-operation developed between members of the group. Some of the members who were rather discouraged because they were poor in the tool subjects had gained recognition in the group through their creative art, dramatic power, and social graces.

PIONEER SETTLEMENT

Early in October, 1933, an all-day excursion was made to Schoenbrunn Settlement which is eighty-seven miles from Cleveland. Our mothers packed lunches for us. Two fathers and four mothers took us in their cars.

Schoenbrunn means Beautiful Spring. The name explains why the pioneers settled there in 1772. The Schoenbrunn Settlement was rebuilt in 1926-1929 by the Ohio Historical Society and was dedicated as a Memorial Park to the Early Pioneers. There are more than a dozen crude cabins, the first Protestant church west of Pennsylvania and the first schoolhouse west of the Ohio river. All the buildings are made from logs; no nails were used in the re-building. All the furniture was made from logs, too.

The roofs are made of clapboards. Punch-eon floors are found in the church, in the school, and in a few cabins. In the other cabins there are latch strings and old fashioned fireplaces that can be used. In the church and school, the fireplaces are huge and six or seven children were able to stand in them. When we visited the school, we had an old fashioned "spell-down," sang our A-B-C song, and our multiplication tables. We recited some poems. It was a day "full of adventures," as one little girl expressed it, and will be long remembered both by children and parents who took us on the excursion. The children came away with a good understanding and appreciation of an interesting and vanished past. The parents say it is the best unit of work that the children have had, that they have learned more about people and have been very happy. The children are sure they have never had as good a time or learned as much. The teacher is satisfied to let the results of the New Stanford Achievement Test for Grades 2-3 determine the progress

the children made in their school studies. The tests give a range in educational age from eight years, three months to eleven years, four months. The checks on the Social Chart shows excellent growth on all points checked.

In the 3A group were twenty-six children coming from Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant homes. Three children, one boy and two girls, played in the school orchestra. One boy had a strong interest in living animals so he kept the room supplied with pigeons, owls, bantam chickens, rabbits, turtles, fish, salamanders and various types of snakes.

The other members of the class were wholesome children from American homes of the middle class with no decided interests.

The range in mental rating was from 156 I.Q. to 82 I.Q.

The spelling, language, art, handwork and much of the reading was taught through other units. The samplers and pewter trays were used as Christmas presents for parents, aunts or special friends.

Playground

In summer I am very glad
We children are so small,
For we can see a thousand things
That men can't see at all.

They don't know much about the moss
And all the stones they pass:
They never lie and play among
The forests in the grass:

They walk about a long way off;
And, when we're at the sea,
Let father stoop as best he can
He can't find things like me.

LAWRENCE ALMA-TADEMA

The Present Crisis in Kindergarten Education¹

OLGA ADAMS

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THAT there is a crisis in the field of kindergarten education is neither a debatable question nor is it one of minor significance. The situation is increasingly alarming because of the little effect the efforts of many people, who are vitally interested in this period of education and who represent all sections of the country, seem to have had in bringing about an improvement. In fact, all of the "talk," over a period of years, about the "value of the kindergarten training" and all of the demonstration of its value in many, many kindergartens, seem to have had very little weight or influence with this present general public when it comes to pay for such training.

What is the trouble? That is the question which all kindergarten teachers must face as squarely and honestly and intelligently as they can. Then they must not stop at possible answers which they may arrive at in their own thinking, but go on to the next problem—"What may we do?" And here "do" must be interpreted to mean *action*, not merely thinking and talking about it. Mr. Bogan, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, literally threw a bomb—a fear bomb—into the Kindergarten-Primary luncheon held this summer during the National Education Association convention in Chicago when he pointed his finger at the group and said, in effect, "You kindergarten teachers have been too complacent in your feeling of security in the educational system. You are far from being established. You have a fight for your lives ahead of you." In the light of later happenings in the kindergarten situation not only in Chicago but all over the country, his words have taken on a far greater significance. He knew whereof he spoke.

¹ This article has been organized from a talk given before Delta Phi Upsilon, Honorary Fraternity of Early Childhood Education, during its National Convention held in Chicago, Illinois on July 28, 29, 30, 1933.

The actual situation is here, in which kindergarten teachers are having to fight for that period of education which seems to them to be of equal value with any other period and indispensable in the wholesome development of the child. The word "fight" is used purposely because of the attitude it implies. Kindergarten teachers may have been "lady-like" too long in their efforts to carry conviction. They may have to establish themselves as a vigorous, aggressive group in order to gain the respect of the general public which apparently builds up its appreciations through such attitudes.

What is the present status of the kindergarten in the field of general education? S. P. Capen, Chancellor of the University of Buffalo, New York, has said, "If there ever was any doubt in the public mind concerning the value of kindergarten education that doubt has now been dispelled. The growth of kindergarten children in self-reliance, in manual dexterity, in appreciation of the value of coöperation, has been evident wherever the kindergarten has been established." C. E. Chadsey, former Dean of Education, University of Illinois, thus committed himself, "The kindergarten, in my judgment, has amply proved its right to recognition as an integral part of our public educational systems. The foundation for further training which is secured to the child by the contacts made in a properly manned and equipped kindergarten is invaluable. I constantly regret the fact that many of our smaller educational systems have not established kindergartens." Many more quotations of similar import might be included if space permitted. On the basis of such endorsement it is evident that if educators really dictated the policies and procedures of our public school systems kindergarten teachers might be "complacent."

What about the status of the kindergarten in the field of child psychology and

mental hygiene? Angelo Patri has said, at the end of a pamphlet on *More Reasons for the Kindergarten*,¹ "If there isn't a kindergarten in your town, just get one started." Dr. Stoddard of the University of Iowa has asked, "What evidence do we have that four college years for the average child is more valuable to him than four years of special education as a preschool child?" Using these two quotations as an indication of the trend of attitude, it would seem that, if child psychologists were dictating the policies of our school systems, the kindergartens would be sure of a place, under the condition, of course, that they were providing that type of experience which has seemed to be of the best educational value for that period.

But kindergartens are being dropped out of school systems in a wholesale fashion, or else are being maintained under such conditions of over-crowding and under-staffing and inadequate equipment that satisfactory training is impossible. It is evident that neither educators nor child psychologists are dictating policies in any general fashion. With whom, then, must kindergarten teachers establish themselves? The answer is obvious—the general public which pays the bills and therefore assumes the initiative in "running" the schools to a startling extent, startling in that it does this running far too much from the point of view of "how much does it cost" and far too little from the point of view of "what is necessary for the wholesome development of children," as advocated by experts in this particular field.

What is the present status of the kindergarten with the general public as evidenced in the public school systems throughout the country? It is not necessary to have all the actual figures to know that it is weak and wobbly in certain localities and altogether nil in others. Up-to-date statistics on the number of kindergartens maintained on a good basis, the number retained in name only, and the number dropped, are hard to get because they are changing so rapidly, but a study of any one locality will give

sufficient data to indicate that there is a crying need for action.

What are the kindergarten teachers going to do? What can they do to save their cherished field? As was stated in a foregoing paragraph of this article, there has been much talking done on the subject over a period of years, apparently to no avail. The writer wishes that she had a record of the number of times in the course of some twenty years she has talked to various parent groups on the subject of the "Value of Kindergarten Training." In none of the "remembered" communities are kindergartens still retained. This, of course, may be a sad reflection upon her ability to impress her audience but, be that as it may, talking has not accomplished much. There has been much written on the subject of the value of kindergarten experienced by recognized authorities in the field of child development and education. Many well trained kindergarten teachers have been sent into the teaching field from accredited teacher-training institutions the country over. There has been much excellent demonstration of the worth-while accomplishments of kindergarten education. There has been some scientific experimentation in the field, much of which has shown in actual dollars and cents what kindergarten training has accomplished in the promotion of desirable progress in education. Still, in the light of all this, kindergarten education languishes and its actual life is threatened. What is wrong with the campaign, or, at least, what is the next move?

It is the firm conviction of the writer that the leadership in the movement to "save the kindergartens" must be shifted from the teachers or teacher organizations to the enlightened people of the immediate community which is affected. They are the ones to carry intelligent, sound arguments directly into the camp of unbelievers, skeptics and lukewarm advocates. In the present state of affairs if the teachers of the community take this lead they are accused, however unjustly, of fighting for their jobs. If outsiders are brought in to carry on such a campaign, especially if they be from the field of education, they are told, more or

¹ National Kindergarten Association, "More Reasons for the Kindergarten," 8 West Fortieth Street, New York.

less justly, "You do not understand our particular situation." Miss Patty Hill, in an article for *Parents Magazine* entitled, "Shall the Youngest Suffer Most?" says,

Who then can best alter or influence these unjust and disastrous conditions? Teachers? A thousand times, no! Parents must meet this challenge and demand justice for the youngest. When parents protest boards of education and school authorities *must* listen. For this reason a heavy responsibility falls upon the shoulders of parents for conditions in their own public schools.

A conference was called recently in Chicago by a teacher organization which was and is highly concerned about the present kindergarten situation. Invited to this conference, by personal letter in so far as it was possible, were representatives of the following community groups: the public school system, the parent teacher organization, the women's club and a business men's association. Invitations were sent into about forty suburbs and nearby cities many of which were either dropping their kindergartens or having difficulty in maintaining them. The letter of invitation stated that practical help might be obtained in the conference not only from an educator who would state, very concisely, the actual contribution of the kindergarten to the field of early education, but also from a superintendent who had met the administrative difficulties with a questioning board, and a tax expert who could advise from that standpoint. There were only nine communities represented at the conference and but three of them were having difficulty in maintaining their kindergartens. The audience of about sixty people was made up largely of teachers who were either not directly connected with kindergarten teaching or whose positions were not in danger. There were a few—a very few—parents and teachers who came with the avowed purpose of getting help for their immediate situation. This experience illustrates the point that the writer is trying to make: the public which actually "makes the wheels go round" in education is not reached through such teacher-initiated movements

and therefore it is evident that the leadership must be shifted to the enlightened ones of that very public.

If teachers are not to take the lead what are they to do? Is theirs to be a watchful waiting program or one of a resigned attitude and folded hands? Neither is conceivable if they are to fight for their convictions, as was suggested in the fore part of this article. Indeed, there is a very active program incumbent upon them. It is most definitely and clearly outlined in a bulletin published by the Association for Childhood Education entitled, "Suggested Procedure When Elimination of Kindergartens is Proposed."¹ This bulletin serves equally well for communities in which there are no kindergartens and for communities where kindergartens have been recently dropped. Therefore this article might close right here with the following advice to kindergarten teachers, "Send to the Association of Childhood Education for directions of what to do." But for fear some might not be so moved, a few of the main methods of procedure will be cited together with some additional suggestions.

First and foremost, kindergarten teachers in communities where kindergartens are in difficulty must find intelligent, influential, and energetic citizens of the community who are not only actually convinced of the value of kindergarten training, but who are willing to take the lead in informing and converting the rest of the community. Very often such individuals are found in some such civic group as the parent-teacher organization or the women's club, and therefore have added prestige and influence. With the leadership thus invested it is then necessary to see that these individuals or groups have the latest and most accurate information available on the subject of kindergarten education and its place in the educational system to use in their campaign. This gathering together of informational material is a service which the teachers should perform. There are many sources. The Association for Child-

¹ Association for Childhood Education, "Suggested Procedure When Elimination of Kindergartens is Proposed." 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

hood Education has a second bulletin entitled, "Research Findings in Relation to Kindergarten Training as a Factor in School Life" which contains most convincing material. The Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., always stands ready to supply a great variety of material. Many teacher-training schools and child-study centers can and are most willing to aid in this problem of gathering accurate and useful data.

As for the actual procedure in the campaign, the leaders should determine it to a large extent. The teachers may well act in an advisory or assisting capacity whenever necessary. The bulletin mentioned previously on "what to do" would serve as a splendid guide to any citizen's group undertaking the establishment or the re-establishment of kindergartens. They should know of it.

Perhaps the most telling part teachers can play in the campaign is that of demonstrators of their wares. They must be willing to have, no, more than that, they must encourage the visiting of their classrooms not only by the parents of the children in the room, but also by all those who want "to be shown." The teachers must be ready to state in no uncertain terms their aims and the probable outcomes of the kindergarten experience. A superintendent said not long ago that he was quite satisfied with the teaching which his kindergarten teachers were doing, but when he asked them to justify their procedure he found them vague and hesitant. That must not be. Kindergarten teachers must not only be ready to answer questions—they must be willing, when called upon, to make talks or to write articles which are not sentimental descriptions but genuine, straightforward, convincing statements of aims and accomplishments. To be able to do this teachers must keep as accurate and as objective records as possible of child progress along the most significant lines of development.

So much for what to do in the immediate

crisis. A word as to some more remote procedures. There should be, the country over, work for better kindergarten legislation. Practically no state has effective laws dealing with this period of education. It would seem best, if the kindergarten is to be rightly established as an integral part of the educational system, not to work for specific kindergarten legislation as exemplified in Mandatory-Upon-Petition Laws, but rather for the lowering of compulsory school age or some such measure. However, workable Mandatory-Upon-Petition Laws are better than no legislation at all.

There is another procedure which the writer mentions with some trepidation although it has been advocated with considerable vigor at different times by some leaders in the kindergarten-primary field of education. It is that the name, "kindergarten," be dropped and some change brought about in the naming of the primary grades to include kindergarten. Why not first grade instead of kindergarten? There has come to be as close relationship in procedure between kindergarten and first grade as there is between first and second grades. Why not have the name indicate this relation or serial connection better than it does? Perhaps if this change in name had been brought about when unification between the two grades began to be a reality, then the dropping of the kindergartens would not have been thought possible.

This present crisis in kindergarten education demands vigorous action on the part of all individuals vitally interested, and is therefore very stimulating. It should and most likely will produce better kindergarten teachers than ever before. It gives promise, in spite of the present dark outlook, of bringing about the permanent establishment of kindergarten training as an integral part of the educational system. The fulfillment of the promise, however, is quite dependent upon the proper understanding and working relationship between the public whose children receive the training and the teachers who give the training.

The Status of the Kindergarten

PART III. EXTENT OF CURTAILMENT AND FUTURE OUTLOOK

WILLIAM G. CARR

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TWO previous articles in this series have reviewed the changes in kindergarten enrolment, teaching force, salaries, expenditures and term in school systems throughout the United States. These articles were based on a questionnaire circulated by the Research Division in September 1933. In general these articles show a 12 per cent decrease in the number of kindergarten classes, a 21 per cent reduction in the number of children enrolled in kindergarten, a 19 per cent reduction in the number of kindergarten teachers employed, a 12 per cent average increase in the number of kindergarten children assigned to each teacher, fewer kindergarten supervisors, about a 30 per cent decrease in kindergarten expenditures for salaries, a 44 per cent reduction in expenditures for supplies and equipment, and a slight decrease

in kindergarten terms. For the detailed data on these trends the reader should consult the first two articles in this series.¹

The questionnaire also called for information on the methods, causes, and effects of reducing or maintaining kindergarten service. This article is devoted chiefly to a review of the facts and opinions revealed by this part of the inquiry. The principal findings are summarized in the accompanying table.

Entire elimination of kindergarten. The total number of cities reporting on this part of the questionnaire is 717. The table classifies these cities according to population, using the population groups commonly followed by the Research Division in reporting

¹ Carr, William G. "The Status of the Kindergarten. Part I: Children and Teachers." *Childhood Education*. Vol. 10, No. 6, March, 1934. "Part II: Salaries and Finance." *Childhood Education*. Vol. 10, No. 7, April, 1934.

TABLE 1

METHODS, CAUSES, AND EFFECTS OF REDUCING OR MAINTAINING KINDERGARTEN SERVICE

Items	Cities Over 100,000 in population	Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population	Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population	Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population	Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population	All cities reporting
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total number of cities reporting	54	99	200	175	189	717
Number of cities in which kindergartens were eliminated entirely	3	11	26	38	22	100
Per cent of cities in which kindergartens were eliminated entirely	5.6	11.1	13.0	21.7	11.6	13.9
Number of cities in which classes were eliminated or combined with others:						
In sparsely populated sections	12	11	19	6	4	52
In poor sections	1	0	4	1	0	6
In wealthy sections	0	1	3	2	1	7
Without reference to character of population	13	17	31	23	17	101

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Items	Cities Over 100,000 in population	Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population	Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population	Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population	Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population	All cities reporting
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Methods of curtailment</i>						
Enrolment limited to certain number in each school area.....	2	0	6	4	3	15
Minimum age for entrance was increased.....	12	21	26	22	23	104
Maximum age for entrance was decreased.....	1	2	3	1	3	10
Additional requirements for admission such as mental, physical development, health, etc.....	0	1	3	1	0	5
<i>Causes in reduction in expenditures for kindergartens</i>						
Discovery of ways to economize without impairing quantity or quality of service.....	11	32	37	18	23	121
Necessity of reducing the school budget.....	40	63	125	106	113	447
Belief on part of school board that kindergarten work is less essential than other school work.....	1	5	20	30	21	77
Taxpayers protest against kindergarten on former scale.....	3	4	16	21	10	54
<i>Causes for maintaining or increasing expenditures for kindergartens</i>						
No need to reduce school budget.....	1	1	4	7	12	25
Belief on part of school board that kindergarten is too important a service to be curtailed.....	7	10	29	26	26	98
Pressure brought to bear by parents and citizens in favor of continuing kindergarten without decreasing quantity or quality of service.....	2	0	5	9	11	27
Increase in number of children whose parents wish them to attend.....	2	3	6	9	9	29
<i>Effect of changes in kindergarten organization</i>						
Total number reporting on this item..	30	64	122	87	93	396
Improvement in service.....	6	12	15	12	11	56
Impairment of service.....	10	14	19	26	15	84
No apparent change in service.....	14	38	88	49	67	256

data of this kind. It shows that a total of 100 cities out of the 717 reporting have eliminated kindergartens entirely. These 100 cities represent all sizes of population. There is a slight tendency for the smaller cities to eliminate kindergartens more commonly than the larger cities.

Eliminations or combinations of classes. In addition to the cities which eliminated kindergartens entirely, a considerable number of cities report that kindergarten classes are eliminated or combined with other classes, although some kindergarten opportunities remain. The table indicates that as a general rule kindergarten classes are marked for elimination without any particular reference to the character of the population served by the school concerned. There is some tendency to eliminate or combine kindergarten classes serving the more sparsely populated sections of the city. There appears to be no general tendency to favor either the poor or the wealthy of the city in adopting policies of this kind.

Limiting enrolments. In addition to combining or eliminating classes there are a number of other methods reported for decreasing the extent of the kindergarten service. A few cities limit kindergarten enrolment to a certain maximum number of children in each school area. Others require the older children to enter the first grade. A very few cities employ requirements for admission such as mental development, physical development, and health standards, as a means of keeping down enrolments. By far the most commonly used method, however, has been to increase the minimum age for entrance to the kindergarten. Measures of this kind, combined with the entire closing of some kindergartens, doubtless account for much of the loss in kindergarten enrolment noted in the first article in the series.

Causes of reduction. Those responding to the questionnaire were asked to indicate the major cause or causes for reduction or elimination of kindergarten services. The replies thus secured are also summarized in the table. Considering all the cities as a single group, the most commonly empha-

sized cause for reduction is stated as the necessity of reducing the school budget. Next in frequency of mention is the discovery of ways to economize in the operation of kindergartens without impairing the amount of quality of service. A group of 77 cities reports that the cause, or one of the causes, for kindergarten reduction is a belief on the part of the school board that the kindergarten is less essential than other phases of school work. Taxpayers' protests are specifically mentioned by 54 cities. In considering the causes of retrenchment thus reported it should be borne in mind that probably all of these causes operate to a greater or less degree in most of the cities where kindergartens have been reduced. The tabulation does suggest, perhaps, the relative emphasis which is to be placed on the various factors.

Causes of maintenance. Turning to the brighter side of the picture we find a considerable number of cities which have maintained or increased expenditures for kindergartens during the period 1930-34. When asked for the reason or reasons why these expenditures have been maintained or increased, those responding to the questionnaire most frequently indicated a belief on the part of the school board that the kindergarten is too important a service to be curtailed. This one factor is mentioned as the cause for maintaining standards four times as frequently as any other factor. Three other factors were mentioned. Each of these received approximately the same emphasis. Twenty-nine cities have been influenced to maintain kindergartens because of an increase in the number of children whose parents wish them to attend. Twenty-seven cities report definite pressure by parents and citizens to continue or expand kindergartens and 25 cities report no need for the reduction of the school budget.

General appraisal of changes. In an attempt to secure a brief summary of the entire situation, those responding to the questionnaire were asked to offer a judgment as to the general effect of changes made in the organization or administration of kindergartens in the city since 1929-

30. Nearly 400 cities answered this question. Of this number 256, or about two-thirds of those replying, gave as their judgment that there had been no apparent change in the quality of the service. Eighty-four respondents, or about one-fifth, believed that the service had been impaired, and 56, or about one-seventh, believed that the service had been improved. Looked at from this point of view, the general picture of the kindergarten situation is by no means one of complete ruin and destruction. Although at least 100 cities have closed their kindergartens entirely and many others have adopted drastic reductions, a sufficient number of cities have maintained or increased kindergarten services to offer a basis for hoping that this branch of the public school service will experience quick recovery when general educational and economic conditions improve.

A crucial issue. The economic situation has doubtless been the primary factor in bringing upon the kindergartens such curtailments and reductions as have occurred in the past few years. Setting this factor

aside for the moment, however, it appears from this study that the next most important factor is the attitude of the citizens as represented on the school board. The figures presented in certain parts of the accompanying table indicate rather clearly that decisions concerning the maintainance or curtailment of kindergartens hinge on whether the board of education and citizens generally regard the kindergarten as an important, integral part of the public school system, or whether they view it as a minor, non-essential extra. It would appear that those who wish to protect the kindergarten from further retrenchments, and those who wish to see it expand and improve will do well to concentrate a large part of their attention upon the problem of demonstrating the essential unity of the kindergarten with the other branches of the public school service. If this contention can be successfully demonstrated, further drastic reductions in kindergartens may be avoided and the recovery and development of kindergarten education may be facilitated.

Profit

No profit has a flower
Except to grow;
Yet it pays for itself,
Its hour in blow,
By being a flower, a thing
To fasten us to spring.

Each loveliness we earn
By loveliness;
Worth comes to worth, and so
No more, no less,
Our profit is to be each day
Ourselves; by this we pay.

—LIZETTE WOODWORTH REESE, in *White April.* (New York: Farrar & Rinehart.)

Emergency Nursery Schools

MARY DABNEY DAVIS

Specialist, Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education, United States Office of Education,
Washington D.C.

The sixth Emergency Educational Program, Nursery Schools, was the last of the series to start and has but begun to get well under way. From 36 States supplementary plans have been submitted and approved. This means that, within the States, Emergency Nursery Schools are organized under the direction of the State Department of Education and under the immediate control of local public school systems. It means that on each staff of the nursery school there is a head teacher who has had either kindergarten-primary or nursery school training, and that there is an average of 10 children to each professional worker; that either a teacher or someone especially trained in the work of nutrition and in the work of physical health are included on the staff so that the education, health and welfare of the children are safeguarded. This also means that parent education is a part of the program. For partially qualified teachers pre-service and in-service training is provided. In a majority of the States a coöperative committee composed of representatives of various educational, social and welfare organizations are sponsoring and supporting the project as it is developed from the State Department of Education.

In keeping with the memorandum of December 7, issued by Mr. Hopkins, the purpose of the program is two-fold, that is, to employ needy and qualified teachers and to relieve the conditions imposed upon young children exposed to the current economic and social difficulties. Realizing the heavy load which State Superintendents and Commissioners of Public Instruction are carrying, a grant of money was secured from a private source to offer assistance in the organization and supervision of the Emergency Nursery Schools. This program has made it possible for representatives of

the National Advisory Committee on Emergency Nursery Schools to call upon State Superintendents and others for personal assistance. The fund has also made it possible to print and distribute literature of practical help in equipping and conducting nursery schools. It has also made it possible to offer to State Superintendents a temporary assistant to act upon his staff and under his direction to supervise the work within his State. There are 36 such assistants now working on the staffs of the State Department of Education. It has been interesting to see the various ways in which the pre-service and in-service training is being provided for partially qualified teachers. It is estimated that colleges and universities have given free tuition for two to four weeks of pre-service training to approximately 62 teachers. In some States institutes for teachers now engaged in the work are offered for from three days to two weeks time. Itinerant institutes were set up in West Virginia where a group of four or five professional workers went to 12 different centers conducting two full days of instruction for the partially qualified teachers, nutritionists, and nurses engaged in the work. In Texas a program of correspondence training is now being considered. In Idaho and in several other States weekend institutes are now being conducted.

It is rather interesting to know that school administrators who have had a course in early childhood education or in child development are those who are most able to coöperate and give the best assistance with this Emergency Nursery School program. The instance of what pre-school education means has utilized the program in two or three States where the Director of Emergency Nursery Schools has had this type of work. Two county

superintendents in one State wrote the first manual for local superintendents to follow in organizing Emergency Nursery Schools. The presidents of two or three teachers colleges who had had work in child development were those who organized most helpfully the pre-service training courses for the partially qualified teachers. This had emphasized the importance for the education of school administrators and of their having an opportunity and in fact accepting the opportunity which might be offered in summer sessions of universities and colleges in the essentials of early childhood education. Some of the various ways in which the nursery schools have been organized include the following: As part of elementary schools, as laboratories in high schools, and in colleges. More spectacularly have they been used as laboratories in continuation schools where youth now at work receives preparation for its own introduction to family life and proper development of young children. Subsistence homestead development is finding the nursery school an excellent nucleus for the community centers which constitute the heart and soul of the subsistence unit. Directors of the work in colonies of migrant workers have asked for nursery schools to care for the children of these itinerant workers. A request has come from the Indian Schools in organizing nursery schools as part of the work in the Indian Reservation Schools. In the Virgin Islands three well-trained teachers are now organ-

izing the first nursery schools and setting about to train nine native teachers so that nursery schools may be a part of the communities and of the public school authorization. Several rural directors are working out programs of itinerant nursery education and in a few instances nursery schools have been included in consolidated schools. An earnest effort has been made to use the nursery school as the beginning of Americanization work in some of the towns located in the sections of the country where the families speak the Spanish language.

Accurate information will soon be available as to where the schools are located, how many there are, etc. The present estimate is that there are approximately 1500 nursery schools organized under the present Emergency Relief program and that approximately 40,000 children between the ages of 2 and 5 are enrolled. Approximately 3,000 teachers and probably another 1,000 workers in the field of nutrition and health are conducting these nursery schools.

What the future has to offer in the light of permanency is not evident at this time. Doubtless there will be a much more widespread appreciation of the value of utilizing the early years of a child's life for his education than has heretofore existed. Undoubtedly many of these schools will be made permanent. Now seems to be an appropriate time for taking account of stock and for making sure that the opportunity is accepted in order to test a program in nursery education.



(continued from page 397)

In other words, *the movies are a school, a system of education*. When they are good they make one of the most successful elements in education, and if they did not exist we should need to invent them. They have, however, run away with us. Their history is so brief that we have hardly had time to glance at the stream, let alone to cleanse or

safeguard it, before we accept it as our supply of fresh water. Now, however, we have glanced at it and the pollution we see in the stream is appalling. All we can do now is to set to work at once, and by "we" I mean every parent, every teacher, every citizen in the country, to cleanse the stream and make it a thing of health and refreshment instead of the dangerous reservoir it is.

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Forty-first ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION *Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary*

International Kindergarten Union
Founded 1892

National Council of Primary Education
Founded 1915

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE
MAY 2-5, 1934

OFFICERS

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JULIA M. GREENE.....	Nashville, Tennessee
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CONVENTION PERSONALITIES

HAROLD ANDERSON.....	Institute of Child Welfare, University of Iowa; Vice President, National Association for Nursery Education
WINIFRED BAIN.....	New College, Columbia University
CAROLINE W. BARBOUR.....	Wisconsin State Teachers College
JEAN BETZNER.....	Teachers College, Columbia University
MRS. HUGH BRADFORD.....	President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers
LUCY ELLIOTT.....	Director, Classes for Exceptional Children, St. Louis Public Schools
BURTON FOWLER.....	Tower Hill School
LUCY GAGE.....	George Peabody College for Teachers
HENRY J. GERLING.....	Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis
MARJORIE HARDY.....	Germantown Friends School
PATTY SMITH HILL.....	Teachers College, Columbia University
BRUCE R. PAYNE.....	President, George Peabody College for Teachers
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PAULINE RUTLEDGE.....	Towson Normal School
MAYCIE SOUTHALL.....	George Peabody College for Teachers
RUTH STREITZ.....	University of Cincinnati
LAURA ZIRBES.....	Ohio State University

Convention Theme: "The Young Child in the New Social-Order"

Headquarters: Hotel Hermitage

PRELIMINARY PROGRAM

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

MAY 2-5, 1934

WEDNESDAY, MAY 2

MORNING

First General Session

Topic: "What Organizations Are Doing to Aid the Child in His Adjustment to the New Social Order."

Representatives of national organizations in the field of active service for young children will explain their services and suggest how teachers can assist in coördinating these activities.

Five Study Classes

Classes, presided over by recognized leaders, will meet for one hour and a half on three consecutive mornings. Leaders will be assisted by other outstanding educators who will contribute to the discussion. Vital questions from members of the classes will be encouraged.

- I—Creative English
- II—The Child and His Reading
- III—Art for the Young Child
- IV—The Conference Period
- V—Development of Curriculum for Social Understandings

NOON—Committee Luncheons

AFTERNOON

Conferences

Topic: "Meeting Today's Problems in the Education of the Young Child."

The discussion of this topic will be divided into three groups meeting simultaneously. The entire group will come together at the close for a summary of discussions:

- I—Emergency Nursery Schools
- II—Retaining the Kindergartens
- III—Facing Creatively the Emergency in the Primary

Tea—Centennial Club—Honoring Official representatives of Other Organizations.

NIGHT

Second General Session

Greetings from Local and State Educators.
Official Opening address of the Convention.

THURSDAY, MAY 3

MORNING

Conferences

- I—Plans and Problems of A.C.E. Branches
- II—Conference for Training Teachers
- III—How to Help the Exceptional Child in the Average Classroom

NOON—"CHILDHOOD EDUCATION" Luncheon

AFTERNOON—Garden Pilgrimage

Tea—Peabody Teachers College—Honoring Past A. C. E. Presidents.

NIGHT

Third General Session

Topic: "Keeping Faith with the Children."

Address: "The Duty of the Teacher to Interpret the Schools to the Community."

Address: "The Community's Responsibility to Provide Adequate Educational Opportunities for All Children."

FRIDAY, MAY 4

MORNING—Business Meeting

Noon—Luncheons of Special Groups

AFTERNOON

Fourth General Session

Topic: "Effect of Environment on the Child's Personality."

NIGHT—Dinner Meeting—"Our Pioneers of the South"

SATURDAY, MAY 5

MORNING—Memorial Service

Business Session

Fifth General Session

Address: "School Finance Made Clear"

Specific questions concerning legislative and financial problems affecting public schools will be answered by experts.

Summary: Relating the discussions of the week to the general convention theme.

AFTERNOON—Southern Barbecue Dinner

A visit to the Hermitage—Andrew Jackson's Home.

EXHIBITS

Wednesday to Saturday, Inclusive—8:30 A.M.
to 6:00 P.M.

Commercial Exhibit:

Modern equipment and supplies suited to the needs of the nursery, kindergarten and primary grades will be on display in the exhibit room of the Hermitage Hotel, Convention Headquarters.

Educational Exhibit:

An interesting exhibit of children's work, arranged by Maycie Southall of George Peabody Teachers College, will be located near the Commercial Exhibit room.

LIST OF HOTELS—NASHVILLE, TENN.

Hotel	Single with Bath	Double with Bath
Hermitage Headquarters	\$2.50-\$4.00	\$3.50-\$7.00
Andrew Jackson	\$2.50-\$4.00	\$3.50-\$7.00
Noel	\$2.50-\$4.00	\$3.50-\$7.00
Sam Davis	\$2.00-\$2.50	\$3.00-\$3.50
Maxwell House	\$1.75-\$2.00	\$2.50-\$3.00
Tulane	\$2.00-\$2.25	\$2.50-\$3.00
Savoy	\$1.25-\$2.25	\$2.50-\$4.00

Y. W. C. A.—

Rooms without Bath: Single \$1.50, Double \$1.00 each.

Please make all reservations directly with Hotels.

SPECIAL RAILROAD RATES

Special rates of one and one-third fare on some lines and one and one-half on other lines, for the round trip, will be available to members of the Association, provided 100 members at-

tend the convention and secure certificates. A CERTIFICATE, not a receipt, must be secured from the ticket agent, when ticket is purchased. Immediately upon arrival in Nashville, the certificate must be deposited with the Chairman of Transportation, Registration Headquarters, Hermitage Hotel.

In some cases even lower rates can be secured by consulting your agent, well in advance, concerning the best ticket to use when you attend the convention.

The Louisville and Nashville Railroad will operate an "A.C.E. Special" for delegates from the North and East; leaving Cincinnati, 10 A.M. Tuesday, May 1, and arriving in Nashville that afternoon at 4:38.

REGISTRATION

Registration will open Tuesday, May 1, at 3:00 P.M. Bring postcard receipt for 1933-1934 contributing membership or delegates card with you and avoid delays when registering.

Non-members	\$1.00
Students50
Admission to single session...	.25

Keep and wear your badge, secured at the time of registration. This badge serves as your admission ticket to all sessions of the convention. Badges are unnecessary for the evening sessions which are open to the public.

REPORT OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE

Vice-President Representing Primary Grades

Marjorie Hardy,

Principal, Germantown Friends School,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Secretary-Treasurer

Winifred Bain,

New College, Columbia University, New York, New York

JOSEPHINE C. FOSTER

JULIA LETHOLD HAHN

KATHERINE McLAUGHLIN

SARAH MARBLE

CAROLINE W. BARBOUR, *Chairman*,

Nominating Committee.

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

NEWS OF THE ASSOCIATION

STATE ASSOCIATION BULLETINS

Two copies of State A.C.E. Bulletins have recently reached Headquarters, one from Michigan, one from Indiana. Both are most interesting. Quoting from the Michigan Bulletin: "The State Membership Committee is planning a survey of rural districts and cities so that all teachers may be offered the opportunity to become a part of our organization.

"All teachers of young children should be united in one organization for the development of common interests and for the purpose of co-operation with other organizations interested in the education of young children—state, national and international."

The Indiana Bulletin deals particularly with the selection, appointment and duties of state committees needed to carry forward successfully the work of the organization. We quote the purpose of the State Association: "In order to carry still further the excellent work which has been done by the Indiana A.C.E. and its parent organizations, the Primary Council and the Indiana Kindergarten Association, it is desirable—first, to discover what are the conditions to be found today in the field of early childhood education in our state; second, to make an organized effort to improve such conditions where and when the improvement can be brought about by the teachers themselves."

CENTRAL COUNCIL OF CHICAGO

The program of the year provides for general and sectional meetings alternately. For the general meeting a speaker of interest to the whole group is selected. At the sectional meetings the membership is divided into five groups, nursery, kindergarten, primary, intermediate, supervision, and teacher training, with a chairman in charge and a speaker for each. Special book exhibits are often planned for these sectional meetings.

The calendar also includes a luncheon meeting following the regular program. Each lunch-

eon meeting is in charge of one section, thus making it possible for members to hear an additional speaker.

Many special guest days are planned throughout the year so that more and more parents, teachers, principals, supervisors and superintendents may use Central Council of Childhood Education as an educational exchange.

A SPECIAL INVITATION

From the Middle Tennessee State Teachers college comes this special invitation to convention delegates: "We in Tennessee are rejoicing that the Association will meet with us this year. Nashville is preparing a royal welcome and nothing can take the place of what it does, but Murfreesboro, a neighboring town, only thirty miles away would be honored to offer any hospitality.

"The Middle Tennessee State Teachers College is located here on a beautiful campus. The Training School is modern and progressive. It might be of interest to some of the members to see a southern Teachers College. A Campus Branch of the A.C.E. has just been organized. The members would be charmed to entertain any visitors."

SECOND A.C.E. BULLETIN

The second educational bulletin has been sent to A.C.E. contributing members for 1934 and to the President and Secretary of each Branch. The title of this Bulletin is *Home and School Co-operation*. It is edited by Alida Shinn of Mills College, California. Among the contributors are: Willard Beatty, Eleanor Troxell, Helen M. Reynolds and Harold H. Anderson.

This bulletin gives actual reports of methods used by teachers in various schools to encourage and foster the co-operation of home and school.

If you are not a contributing member, but wish a copy of this Bulletin, order it from

A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D.C., price \$.25.

EDITORIAL BOARD MEETS

A meeting of the Board of Editors of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* was held in Cleveland on February 27 with eighteen members of the Board present. Dorothy E. Willy, Chairman of the Board, presided. Editorial policies and definite plans for making the magazine increasingly helpful to teachers formed the basis of the morning's discussions. Many good things are already promised for next year. Among them are a series of articles on the teaching of

reading and a series on science for young children.

HAS YOUR SCHOOL A MAGAZINE LIST

Many schools make up their list of magazines for the coming year during the spring months. If your school does this, may we suggest that you make it your responsibility to see that *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* is placed on that list? One Principal wrote to Headquarters: "Yes, I would be glad to have my teachers read your magazine but they have never asked for it. We order the magazines that the teachers place on the list."

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

PREPARE FOR INTELLIGENT DISCUSSION

The Phi Delta Kappa Fraternity has published for the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education a manual for conference groups that discuss public education. This manual, called "Evaluating the Public Schools," has already been widely distributed and will, no doubt, form the basis for community discussions in many localities during the coming school year.

Of the five chapters in the pamphlet, one entire chapter is given to the discussion of: "At What Point Should Education at Public Expense Begin?" Every one interested in the education of young children should read and ponder this chapter with particular care. As teachers of the youngest children, it is our special responsibility to be prepared to enter intelligently into and to contribute to any discussion of the material in this chapter that may arise. If your library does not have a copy, secure one from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

ONE WAY TO IMPROVE MOVIES

Thoughtful parents and teachers have long been fearful of the influence of many of the current movies upon children. The Payne Fund studies indicate that even young children remember more than they miss in the pictures and that attitudes and habits are strongly influenced by the movies.

The National Council of Teachers of English

is actively supporting the idea that schools can render a signal service through appreciation courses, courses that will lead to an intelligent discrimination between good and poor pictures. In a number of places ten lesson-units on appreciation of films have been inserted in the English courses to the benefit and interest of the students.

If this plan could be widely used, in one decade we should have a public ready to choose deliberately between good and poor pictures. Producers would quickly respond to the taste of their patrons for box office receipts exert a powerful influence.

INSTITUTE OF EUTHENICS

The Institute of Euthenics will hold its ninth annual session at Vassar College from June 27 to August 8, 1934. Two schools for children from two to seven years of age will be conducted in connection with the Institute. A course for nursery school teachers interested in a program of twenty-four hour care of children in a school will be offered by the staff of the lower school. The full program includes courses in child psychology, adolescent psychology, mental hygiene, physiology and nutrition, design and interior decoration, household technology, problems of the modern family, and a course in parent education leadership offering techniques and material for parent teacher meetings. For full information write the Director, Institute of Euthenics, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.



Education begins the gentleman; but reading, good company, and reflecting must finish him.—LOCKE.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

A report of progress.—Under one cover¹ we have brought together a series of discussions which have no essential unity but do find justification for their grouping in that they are either an exposition or product of the activities of the Preschool Department of the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago. The author, Miss Ethel Kawin, who has been the director of this Department, gives an account of its development under her guidance and a recital of the types of services it has rendered as well as presents a series of case studies and three major investigations.

The exposition of the ways in which the Preschool Department of the Institute has functioned in the community is of value in suggesting to the interested some of the possibilities of such an organization in urban areas.

Quite as significant a contribution in their way are the eight major case studies of preschool children as well as the others less fully presented which are scattered throughout the book. These are more or less unique, describing in detail as they do the findings for each case, the agencies which contributed to the analysis and what was contributed by each, the interpretation of the individual and his problems evolved from the findings, the recommendations decided upon, the organization delegated the responsibility for carrying out the recommendations, and the development of the case for a considerable period of time—several years in some instances. The case reports illustrate well the co-operative nature of much of the work of Miss Kawin's Department.

The researches set forth involve analyses of data drawn from the mass of that collected when the Preschool Department was functioning largely as a service unit. Since the kind of planning which would make possible the control of certain disturbing variables was out of the question, the task of interpreting findings is no mean one. The hazards of her program the

¹ Ethel Kawin, *Children of Preschool Age: Studies in Socio-economic Status, Social Adjustment and Mental Ability, with Illustrative Cases*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934, Pp. XXV + 340.

author seems to have cleared admirably in the main, though the reader may have some difficulty keeping all of the significant considerations in mind.

The first study contrasts the performance of two groups of preschool children—one of high socio-economic status and one of low—on two so-called intelligence tests, the Merrill-Palmer Scale of Mental Tests and the Stanford-Binet Scale. Interestingly enough, the children of the two groups did not differ significantly in their standing on the Merrill-Palmer Scale and showed even greater similarities when the verbal response items were deleted from the test series. That a greater disparity between the two socio-economic groups was noted in the case of the Stanford-Binet test is interpreted as further evidence of the rôle of the language factor in the production of the frequently observed divergence in the test performance of children of high and low economic status.

Since the subjects taking the Stanford-Binet test are not entirely identical with those given the Merrill-Palmer, it is difficult to tell to what extent the generalization is justified. The technique, furthermore, of omitting language response items in the Merrill-Palmer scale we suspect introduces some scoring difficulties—difficulties dependent merely on the order of tests in the scale—whose weight it is not easy to estimate. In this suspicion we may be entirely wrong, because the scoring method was not explained in detail. The study does well, whatever the limitations which the method of gathering the data imposed, to point out the need:

1. For caution in the interpretation of the test scores of preschool.
2. For intensive analyses of the qualitative differences in the reaction of preschool children with various backgrounds to the individual items in our tests.
3. For conservatism in generalizing regarding the effect of socio-economic status.

The second research purports to give a comparison and contrast with respect to a number of organismic and environmental factors, of children differing in the degree of the success of their social adjustment to children not their sibs. The author seems to have thought through and around her subject. The size of her task may be realized from the following list of factors studied and thought of causally, in the main: sex; intelligence test score; physical condition; opportunity to play with children; length of attendance at a nursery school; number of sibs; attitude toward sibs; crowding at home; position in the family sequence; other behavior problems of the child; marital relationship of the parents and the latter's agreement or lack of agreement upon matters of child discipline; nationality; occupation, and education of the father, as well as his attitude toward the child; and the degree of ascendancy and submission of the subject. The question of the existence of ascendant and submissive types is also considered.

The third study devotes itself, among other things, to the problem of the adequacy of the normative standards of the Stanford-Binet and Merrill-Palmer tests. The norms, Miss Kawin feels, are too low in the case of the Stanford-Binet scale, the younger the child the greater the degree to which he is overrated by the test. The norms for the Merrill-Palmer scale, on the other hand, are reported to be verified, in the main. Before we can rest entirely comfortably about the interpretations offered—though really we should expect a repetition of the investigation to yield somewhat similar results—we shall want the question of sampling of cases to be dealt with more penetratingly. Whatever the limitations of the data, however, the norms Miss Kawin presents are deserving of as much or more confidence than any we have.

Still another major focus of the last study is the vital question of the stability of a child's relative score over a period of time. The Merrill-Palmer and Stanford-Binet scales are compared in this respect, the former being judged to yield the less constant picture when test and retest are separated by about 10 months on the average.

Since different groups were used in the investigation of the two scales and the groups appear not to be equally homogeneous, the interpretation concerning the relative excellence of the two instruments may be questioned. Though again we have a hunch the author's

findings will be verified by an approach to the problem involving more refined procedures, we shall be happier when some one repeats the study using the same group for both tests, keeping the interval between test and retest constant, and comparing on the basis of the same kind of relative score. The study, meanwhile, serves to bring to the fore the dangers of predicting later test performance from that observed in the preschool years.

Our general impression of the whole volume is that it has dealt with vital problems. We expect to refer to the opus often, not only for the material already mentioned but also for the bibliographies and surveys of the literature on the questions receiving most attention.

HELEN LOIS KOCH
University of Chicago

A textbook in juvenile literature.—The past few years have produced an unusually large number of books for young children. Accompanying this wealth of new material there is evidence of renewed recognition on the part of teachers and curriculum makers of the importance of literature in the education of children during the early school years. The time seems to be ripe, therefore, for a new treatment of the whole subject. Such a new and thorough-going presentation is afforded by a contribution¹ from one who has for years directed college students in their work in this field and speaks therefore with knowledge and authority. Those who are familiar with Miss Moore's *The Primary School*, and with the series of volumes entitled *The Classroom Teacher*, will recall the valuable chapters on children's literature in these earlier publications by the author of the present book.

In approaching the study of literature for children under ten years of age Miss Moore would have students read and thoroughly enjoy the best that is available in the field. "If they can renew acquaintance with old favorites, read much in current literature for sheer pleasure, pursue some lines with intensity and enthusiasm, and slight some which have less appeal, attitudes essential to literary appreciation will be built up which can scarcely be violated in their own work with children." Furthermore, she would have these students gain "an adequate knowledge of the historical and social background out of which distinct types of literature have sprung" (p. 3).

¹ Annie E. Moore. *Literature Old and New for Children*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934. Pp. x + 446. \$1.50.

To these ends the author, in dealing with the several types of material generally recognized as suitable for children, presents the historical background of each particular type, cites five examples for the students' reading both in the text itself and the chapter bibliography, and suggests numerous and varied topics and problems for further intensive study. For example, the discussion of fairy and folk literature includes the origin of the term "fairy," changes that have come about in its interpretation, the appearance of fairies and their like in Chaucer, Shakespeare, and the host of traditional tales. Folk tales are discussed in terms of theories as to their origin, similarities among them, their enduring qualities, and the particular contribution of such collectors of folk lore as Perrault, Grimm, Jacobs, Dasent and others. Folk tales are analyzed as to dramatic qualities, beginnings and endings, story patterns, themes, character portrayals, annual subjects and the songs and refrains which are introduced, and always these are the illuminating examples. In similar fashion the author deals with Mother Goose, fables, myths, poetry, modern fanciful tales and modern realistic stories.

An unusual and extremely interesting feature of this book is "a full length portrait and extended interpretation of Hans Christian Andersen," to which one of the twelve chapters is devoted. "The study of Andersen is recommended as an example of method in tracing significant relations between the author's life and personality and whatever is unique in his creative work. This study also yields a wealth of suggestion to all who try to write for children or

to become more expert in identifying elements of charm in the work of others. Andersen made a very unusual contribution to children's literature and occupies a unique position in relation to both traditional and modern stories. Whether many of his tales can be used in lower primary grades or not, no story-teller can afford to neglect the work of the wizard in the art" (p. 6).

In addition to the many annotated references given in connection with each chapter the last ten pages of the book are devoted to supplementary bibliographies, also annotated.

Thus is this volume rich in valuable content. It will doubtless be used as a basic text in courses given in many teachers colleges and it should be added to the library of everyone interested in providing for children the best that literature has to offer them. **ALICE TEMPLE**

PRIMARILY FOR CHILDREN

AGNEW, KATE E. AND COBLE, MARGARET.
Baby Animals on the Farm. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1933. Pp. V+153. \$0.68.

BURKE, CLAIRE SENIOR.

The Children's Own Book of Songs and Silhouettes. New York: Carl Fisher Pp. 50.

KNISCELLA, HAZEL G.

Little Songs for Little Players: A First Book for Piano. New York: Carl Fisher. Pp. 44. \$0.75.

MACKINSTERY, E.

The Fairy Alphabet. New York: The Viking Press 1933. Unpaged. \$1.50.

TUTTLE, FLORENCE PIPER.

Poetry Patch House: The Poetry Readers, Book One. Brattleboro, Vermont: The Stephen-Daye Press, 1933. Pp. 132. \$0.68.

(continued from page 402)

cial, economic, and international problems in terms of personal responsibility and opportunity. We try to use all that other institutions are contributing in the way of information, skills, and attitudes, to coöperate with them, and to avoid mere duplication and competition.

A peculiar condition which church schools face is that of being restricted to marginal leisure time. This limitation has become more acute as other schools have expanded their programs and time schedules, and as families feel the need and find opportunity for week-ending in the country. Some of the things we are attempting could possibly be

done as well or better through other schools if they conceived of their functions and of the functions of religion somewhat differently. Certainly the religious element in experience, individual and social, is too significant to be dealt with as inadequately as it is being dealt with at present. One looks forward to a time when the coöperation of all persons and institutions concerned with education will be less piecemeal and less a matter of mere "good will." Fundamentally the problems of all educators are intimately related, for we deal with the same people and the same social situations. This present is too marked by our inability and unwillingness to grapple with fundamentals.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

Mental Hygiene in its quarterly issue, dated January, prints an article on The Mental Health of The Teacher by James S. Plant, M.D., Director of the Essex County Juvenile Clinic in Newark, N.J. Dr. Plant notes the ease with which this topic may be treated on the negative side and mentions the fact that it very often is. But since it is his belief that "mental health is something more than merely the absence of disease" he sets out to approach the subject positively—"in the sense of attempting to outline what any one of us looks to life to provide for us." He believes that one would look for five things. These are:

1. Security
2. Temperament
3. A Healthy Group Relationship
4. Integration
5. Success.

Each of these points is discussed at some length with special application to particular problems which may be peculiar to the teaching profession. Of Security he says "the first need for mental health is the presence in our lives of some quite adequate family tie—the close proximity of one or more persons from whom we have a sense of security coming from the fact of *who we are*." He contrasts this relationship to those we form by virtue of what we are or what we do. He feels that the teacher may be hampered in attaining this by the common difficulty women teachers have in pursuing their profession after marriage. As to Temperament, he suggests that one should "look for a mild degree of extraversion in your make-up." For while he recognizes that the great thinkers and dreamers of the world have been introverts, he thinks the extravert "represents the more healthy type of adjustment." His definition of extraversion is interesting—"there is involved a certain 'friendliness' with the environment, with physical reality, a sort of facile flow of action and reaction between the individual and his environment, that there is a certain at-easeness about the reception of

events of reality and equally a facility in response to those phenomena." He finds in the present day programs with their tendencies to provide for doing on the children's part, a step in the right direction. Under A Healthy Group Relationship he stresses the need for having some corner of life one's own. He calls it "the paradox of life: to want to be for the most part the follower, doing what others do, living as they live, lost in the crowd, yet to want also one little corner in life where one is the leader—is different." In this connection he says of the purchase of a hat that "it is the greatest of psychiatric ventures," which rather consoles one for all the difficulties met in this field, which one has feared are rather weakminded. Under Integration he says, "it has to do not only with the federation of the facets of the personality about some goal or aim, but also with the building of a certain completeness or adequate richness in that personality." He thinks there is a real hazard in teaching here since in the teaching setting there is much dependence upon the teacher and grave danger that she will come to require it. In the movement to give children independence and scope for initiative he finds hope for the teacher also. Success he treats from a side quite different from the usually accepted one, for by it he means that feeling which comes to the teacher when she realizes that the particular thing she is doing can be done by her in a little different way than by any one else in the world. He thinks it calls for "new situations and new challenges in human interrelationships." And he feels that the ordinary routine of school fails to give this opportunity. Finally how to attain this type of mental health is considered, and the author's conclusion is that since those who are actually engaged in this work are in rather close agreement that the amount acquired during life is largely acquired through the first fifteen years of life, teacher selection rather than teacher training is the important thing. His final sentence is "Teacher training is, and will long remain, important, but our real goal is teacher selection."

The same journal carries an article on "The Significance Of Play And Recreation In Civilized Life" by Arthur R. Timme, M.D., Psychiatrist, Los Angeles Public Schools. In recapitulation he says, "It is necessary in civilized life to modify or socialize certain fundamental drives that were once useful and necessary to survival." One of these is the aggressive drive and while he feels part of it in adult life finds expression in the energy that goes into competitive and co-operative efforts of daily life, much is left. Of it he says, "The great safety outlet for unutilized aggression has always been in the play and sports of the people." After listing various forms of organized sports which have been known from ancient times to the present day he says, "Those who cannot actually participate derive a vicarious outlet through identification with the participants." Of the play of young children he makes several interesting statements. "Play in the life of the child is fully as important as work in the life of the adult." He shows in some detail how the child's play "epitomizes the past behavior of the race." Its next value he finds in that "it is a preparation for the future work of man." There are two ways in which it especially functions, he believes. First "Play is straining in application and concentration," in that, "only in Play does the child experience that interest and enthusiasm, that losing of one's self in the task at hand, that indifference to distracting influences that make for success when carried into the serious work of man." The author does not indicate how this much-to-be-desired transfer of training will take place. Again he says, "Play is training in socialization. It is by far the best and perhaps the only means of socializing the child."

In *Educational Method* for February, Frederick L. Patry, Neuropsychiatrist, State Education Department, New York writes on "How We May Help To Correct Speech Defects." He tells us that "It is estimated that approximately four per cent of the pupils in elementary grades have speech defects which demand special attention." Of these the majority may be corrected or at least greatly benefitted. The first step is a consideration of all "the facts and factors which pertinently bear on the causes of speech difficulties." And here it is necessary to study the individual as a whole, as he puts it, "including constitutional and ingrained factors as well as those of environment and experiences and the individual's reaction to them." He lists three causes:

- a. Some structural abnormality
- b. Some functional defects.
- c. Some difficulty more or less on the mental level (psychogenic).

Treatment "rationally lies in the removal of the cause, or rather causes, since there are usually several causative factors at work." There are discussions on each point mentioned and then bearing them all in mind he formulates a number of general rules, which we will list more briefly than the article does.

1. Gain the confidence, good will and desire of the person to correct his difficulty.
2. Surround him with a sympathetic, calm, understanding and encouraging atmosphere.
3. Ignore his speech shortcomings and make occasions for praise and reward.
4. Never correct him in the presence of others.
5. Do not call upon him to speak before a group, but encourage him to volunteer.
6. Urge him to relax, and think sounds before attempting to say them.
7. Urge him to pronounce every word slowly, distinctly, and correctly.
8. Writing the first letter of each word will assist the stutterer.
9. Secure the co-operation of parent, teachers, and others. At the same time, the child should be led to realize that he himself is the chief agent in getting well.
10. Speak and study aloud. The use of a mirror will be of assistance.
11. Do not interfere with changing the function of the dominant hand.
12. Tactfully seek to give the individual an understanding of the causes and sources of stress and strain which contributes to the stuttering habit.

In the same journal, Elizabeth B. Bigelow, Psychologist, Public Schools, Summit, N. J. discusses "Improvement In Reading As Shown By Standard Tests." This is a report of the results of a special drive to improve reading in the Summit public schools. The necessity of such a drive was indicated by standard tests. Of especial interest to kindergarten and primary teachers will be the following comments. "Last year we found that a large percentage of our failures were among immature children who entered grade 1 at too early an age, either mentally or chronologically. Therefore, in considering promotion from kindergarten to first grade, we took this matter into considera-

tion. A testing program was set up by which the kindergartners tested all children being considered for promotion, and the psychologist tested those who came from the outside. As a result the number of children under 6 chronologically who entered the first grade was reduced from 76 of the year before to 44. A comment of especial interest is this. "This year we have 35 children who were below 6.0 mentally in September. Exactly one-half of these were below standard in May. Eight others are just on the border. The majority of these immature children have found the work difficult and have been under considerable strain. It is evident that more careful selection of children for first grade has materially helped to raise the standard of achievement and to decrease the problem of maladjustment." Also, "In considering promotions for another year, we have made still further effort to prevent underage and immature children from attempting work which is beyond them." Some suggestive criticisms are listed, as offered by principals in answer to a questionnaire on "What are some of the common mistakes in the teaching of reading?" They are as follows: "Tendency to work with groups, rather than with individuals; Failure to appreciate the differences in background among children; Tendency to begin the teaching of reading before children have sufficient reading readiness; Failure to appreciate the limited vocabulary of many children; Lack of preparation for the teaching of reading among upper grade teachers; Lack of familiarity with the fundamental learning processes; Hesitancy of teachers to try out new methods; Tendency to use books and materials beyond the child's level." These present test questions teachers may well ask themselves.

Child Study devotes its March issue to Summer Activities. Its first article is on "How Summer Activities Are Changing and Why" by Leroy E. Bowman. This starts with a historical survey of the reasons for vacations, which the author tells us began when we were largely an agricultural people, because the children were needed for the summer farm work. Far from being "the result of a humanitarian concern for child and teacher," he believes that "In a time when a man's wealth was counted in sons, as well as stock and acres, the sons, and daughters too, were indispensable from early spring until after harvest, and of necessity schools were organized accordingly." He recognizes, however, that this immediate contact with real life situations had some educational value for the children. With the change

of our society to an industrial civilization, we cling to the vacation which it does not demand, and it is now imperative that we supply what the children gained through the earlier opportunity to get in touch with "everyday reality." The attitude during the transition stage of society has been "one of escape pure and simple." It has been assumed that any form of recreation was desirable. Now he feels that there is need for community planning so that the child's whole year will provide the sort of activities he should be having. He uses three words to sum up the three stages of attitude toward this problem of summer activities. The first was the *work* stage, the second, the *recreational* and the third should be the *educational*. He gives a number of illustrations of the ways this problem is being met in various centers, and says while this is meeting only a small number of children at present it points the way to what may be done. The school seems peculiarly unresponsive to this service, but he believes it should be enlisted and all other possible agencies. What is being done should be regarded only as an experiment or a demonstration or possibilities and he calls upon parents, professional workers, and civic agencies to attack the problem. "There is little excuse for continued failure to provide for all the children during a quarter of their school lives."

Parents for March has a very suggestive article by Anna Wiecking on "Overheard By An Eavesdropper." While this deals directly with parent-child relationships, the method would be an interesting one to work out in teacher-child relationship. In the activities described the author made notes of the casual observations she was able to make of mother-child situations, noting, unobserved, just what the contacts were. When viewed in the light of how attitudes are built up in children, they are appalling, but when considered in the light of every day experience, one knows they are actual.

This magazine prints also "A Personality Rating Scale For Children Six to Nine" by J. Allan Hicks. It describes how the scale was built up and then tells how it is to be used, and gives the average results which have been made by a number of children who have taken it. The author suggests "Parent study groups can use the scale to advantage in several ways. For example it may be used as a "basis for discussion, item by item, raising such questions as the following: How desirable or undesirable is this behavior? Why is it desirable or undesirable?"

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

Does Equipment Make a Difference? In these days of retrenchment and re-evaluation it is helpful to have in black and white certain figures which suggest whether or not the limited funds we do have for education are wisely spent. The tax-payer who is dubious about appropriating money for playground equipment and who says, in defense "We managed to play very well without equipment when I was a child," is perhaps more interested in figures than in argument. Therefore two recent studies by Dr. Marguerite Wilker¹ are of special interest.

A. In the one study, thirty-three children of nursery school and kindergarten age were observed for three days while at play on a well-equipped playground, and for three additional days when all except the fixed play equipment was removed. The observations were devised to record the kind of materials used, the type of exercise encouraged and the kinds of undesirable behavior which occurred before and after the play equipment was removed.

The materials which were permanently placed and were therefore present during both series of observations were two junglegyms, two swings and a sand-box. The materials which were removed were boards, boxes, vehicles, balls, shovels and a rocking boat.

The results are as follows:

1. When the play equipment was reduced the type of activity it had stimulated decreased and other activities appeared. Bodily movement and exercise decreased while play with sand and dirt were very greatly increased.
2. Without the play equipment there were more contacts with the teachers, and more organized games.
3. There was a definite increase in the amount of undesirable behavior when the equipment was removed (such as hitting, quarrelling, crying, teasing).

¹ This investigation, and each of the others which follow, are from the *Proceedings of the Fifth Conference For Nursery Education*, held in Toronto, Canada, October 26-28, 1934. The Proceedings may be obtained from Dr. Abigail Elliot, 147 Ruggles St., Boston.

B. In the second study the same methods were used except that here a group of twenty-nine kindergarten children were observed first during a period of days when the playground was only meagerly equipped, and later during a period when considerable new equipment in the form of rough boards, boxes, wheels and ropes was introduced. The results were strikingly similar to those in study A. On the enriched playground bodily activity and exercise decreased slightly, while play with sand decreased considerably and games and undesirable behavior disappeared.

These two studies are valuable not so much because of the evidence collected, (for the number of children studied was small and the number of the days of observation unfortunately few), but because of the problem thus presented and the kind of approach made by Dr. Wilker and her assistants. Studies of this kind, more substantial in reliability and in number of observations, are very much needed, and many help very much in guiding our selection of play equipment and play materials.

Are Wheel-Toys Desirable at All Times? While Dr. Wilker was presenting her studies on the value of play equipment before one discussion group of the Nursery Education Conference at Toronto, before another section Dr. Driscoll was reporting an experiment of a somewhat similar kind conducted at Vassar.

Last summer it was decided to have the younger of the two nursery school groups use as a playground (cooler for summer play) a slope wooded with birches at the base of which there was a small even plat of ground, instead of having the group use the regular winter playground which was unshaded. On the shaded playground it was possible to have a jungle gym, a sand box, inclined boards and a piano box cut with door and window, but it was not possible for the children to use there such wheel toys as tricycles, kiddie cars, express wagons or doll carriages. This playground was used only in the morning, and in the afternoons the children were given opportunity to use the wheel toys on a shaded walk.

"After the second week, the variety and creativeness of the play of the younger group in the shaded grove began to attract attention. The sand play, in particular, was ingenious and absorbing. The small toys such as automobiles were used in conjunction with the digging, thus using incipient dramatic play. Skill in climbing progressed rapidly. Many social contacts and intermittent group play occurred around the piano box."

The older nursery group presented in their play a sharp contrast to that of the children in the grove. The expanse of cement walk in their playground produced a decided stimulus for the use of tricycles, kiddie cars, express wagons and doll carriages. Very little activity of a different kind was observed. "Blocks received only passing attention, easels were ignored, and the sand box had only its particular devotees." It was therefore decided to try the experiment of removing all the wheel toys of the older group after the first hour of play. "In a relatively short time other activities developed. Building, both with blocks and packing boxes, received great attention. Experimentation with color sprang into life. Dramatic play involving a group of four and five children developed around the hauling of sand in dump trucks. In short the whole complexion of the playground changed and instead of a monotonous similarity of play activity, varied and creative activities were in evidence."

It would seem from this experiment that we should be increasingly critical of the kinds of materials which we choose to serve as a part of the young child's environment. Undoubtedly mobile and locomotive toys have their place, especially as means of creating self-confidence and a sense of power in a child, but perhaps too many such toys, or such toys for too long a period, especially for some children who may seek Kiddie-Kars and tricycles as a means of escape from group responsibility, are not desirable.

How Shall We Feed the Child? There is probably no nutritionist or pediatrician who is a better psychologist than Dr. Charles Aldrich. His book "Cultivating the Child's Appetite" is familiar to most students in early education, and his papers and talks have influenced nursery school practice not a little.

At the Toronto Nursery Education Conference Dr. Aldrich gave a paper before the discussion group on "The Physical Health of the Preschool Child" entitled "The Qualitative

Concept in Nutrition." It summarizes the significant trends in research in child nutrition in recent years and points out the implications of these investigations for parents and nursery school teachers.

Briefly, the main points are these: In considering the physical health of the child for the vast majority of people the quantity idea has not only eclipsed that of quality, but has made the attainment of good quality vastly more difficult. Even among doctors and nurses in schools and clinics certain of them take as their main basis for a diagnosis of malnutrition the figures given by weight and height estimations rather than considering such other important factors as facial expression, color of the mucous membranes, posture, tissue turgor, muscle tone, and mental attitude. Weight alone is not the only criterion of good or poor nutritional status.

A tremendous stimulus to nutrition was given when the fact was discovered that the food calory was a mathematic entity. But this very discovery led many workers to jump to the conclusion that the calory was the unit of nutrition and therefore urged that children be given high caloric feedings. They implied that these high caloric feedings were necessary for normal development and they successfully popularized the idea. Numberless breakfast foods appeared on the market like magic, puddings were extolled, it was maintained that armies could march untold miles on cakes of chocolate, and blatant advertising of the day capitalized the calory much as it does now the vitamin V with less justice. Since gain in weight often follows return of health after illness, it was assumed that weight increase was an index of good health.

An important and early result of this activity was the fact that calories were so conscientiously and thoughtlessly crammed that the appetites of a surprisingly large proportion of our children were ruined. Caloric propaganda still yields considerable force all through the country, and we still see fearful parents trying to keep up to the slogan "A quart of milk a day," and other such pressures.

With the discovery of the importance of amino acids, and later of vitamins the caloric idea was challenged. And we are now living in what might be called a vitamin-mineral-salt era. So many new discoveries are being made at present about the values of these substances that the practising physician is almost bewildered. At present the clinician's wisest plan is

to select for his patients such diets as will consist in widely diversified kinds of foods as little changed by manufacture, seasoning and cooking as possible. Such diets have produced the race and if properly supplemented should sustain it. Undoubtedly specific substances of proven value will be added from time to time to both individual and community diets.

A progressive program of this kind is dictated by common sense and prudence; its achievement is blocked by one factor alone, wide-spread lack of appetite in children. This, it is suggested, is due to forced feeding initiated by a misconception of the essentials of nutrition, a hand-me-down from the caloric or quantitative era. As a result in many instances neither quantity nor quality is eaten, and the whole nutritional system breaks down, while behavior problems, phobias, and indigestion appear.

There are certain major objectives in nutrition all of which are distinguished more by qualitative than by quantitative ideas. We need to educate varied tastes in children so that all sorts of foods may be eaten. We must teach mothers and nurses to prepare foods so that they are not spoiled by unnecessary cooking and processing, and we need to supply the

known accessory food factors either in the foods or separately to every child. We must be on the alert in instances of physical ill-health for the possibility that deficiencies may exist either in the quality of food or of hygiene. But all these goals depend for their attainment to a large extent upon the development of good appetites. And "I think it should be emphasized that the tremendous quantitative effort spoiled the appetites of a large percentage of our child population and is still doing it in a larger proportion than it is pleasant for me to realize." Yet for those who are optimistically inclined the future holds out an alluring picture, indicating as it does that new knowledge of qualitative changes in diet and hygiene may prevent many functional and pathologic conditions from which children now suffer. "I am enthusiastically championing the application of the benefits of modern nutritional advances to our children . . . I sincerely believe that with quality attained in our nutritional and hygienic management quantity results will overwhelm us with satisfaction. . . . It is our duty as people interested in good nutrition to preach this doctrine from the house-tops, to keep impressing on our patients the unique value of types of foods rather than their quality."



(continued from page 405)

the social forces that are determining the practicability of standards, she will be uninformed, unsympathetic and unserviceable, as is our outworn, unadjusting, static school program.

Throughout the decades we have gone on with a set school program. Where new ideas were added the teachers' load was piled up. Now, not only activities, but numbers of pupils have been laid at the door of the teacher. Yet there is a big gap, this need for home-school coöperation. It seems as though we must now be ingenious and perhaps quite reckless. If we throw down the gauntlet and say all right, let's reassort our curricula and fit our teaching so as to include these new demands made for education, what will happen. Perhaps we will find that the new deal for education will re-

sult as it seems to have in industry and agriculture—shorter hours, more intensity, greater results. One result is sure—that for the persons interested in human development teaching will be more fun.

It is obvious that professionally trained workers can recognize these needs earlier and perhaps more objectively than can parents. The school will have to take the initiative to start the experimental work, and perhaps since it will create quite an administrative problem, the teachers who see the need first hand, will have to help administrators to plan the way. It is not necessary for us to wait with experimenting for the developments of the new community housing projects, or to create new reteaching agencies and clinics. With enough sensitivity in our own thinking we can each make beginnings.

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